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ABSTRACT

Seven author-contributed papers address theoretical and applied interventions with children who have behavior disorders. V. Rezmierski reviews the developmental perspective and the Intervention by Prescription model in "Developmental Interventions with Behaviorally Disordered Youth." D. Glenn et al. follow with a discussion of research and theory on "Cognitive Approaches to Social Competence with Behaviorally Disordered Youth." P. Nichols ("Down the Up Staircase: The Teacher as Therapist") examines myths concerning psychotherapy and addresses ways in which teachers can incorporate intentional psychology instruction. In the first of the application papers ("Supportive Peer Groups--A Behavior Management Program for Children") T. Virden outlines a behavior management program in which children analyze their own and others' behavior. A structured learning approach for teaching pro-social behavior is discussed by E. McGinnis in "Teaching Social Skills to Behaviorally Disordered Youth." Descriptions of two intervention approaches--"Teaching Independent Student Behaviors to Behaviorally Disordered Youth" (V. Brown) and "Teaching Social Routines to Behaviorally Disordered Youth" (R. Neel) conclude the monograph. (CL)

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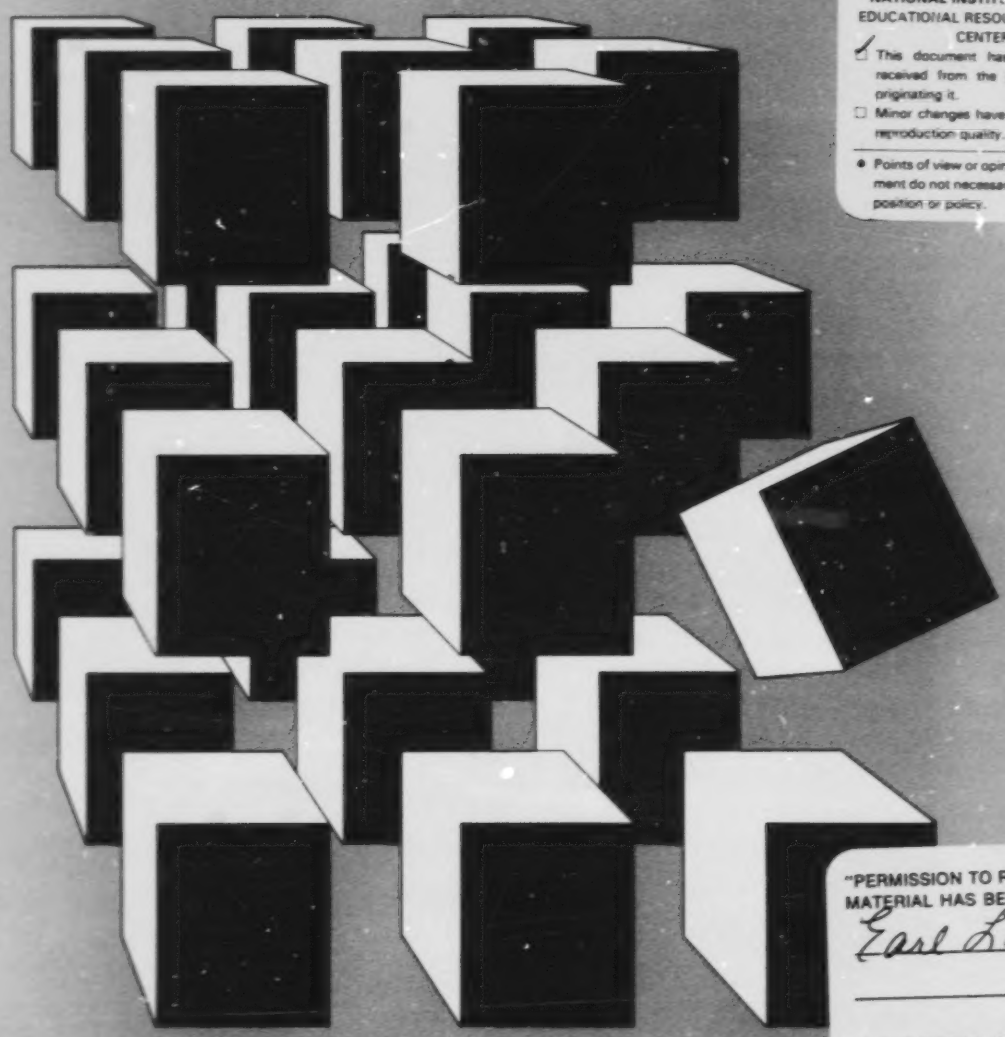

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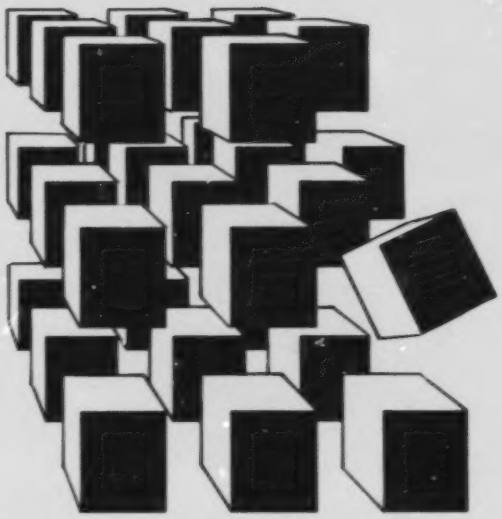

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Introduction

by William C. Morse

The authors' instructions state "The purpose of this monograph is to present, for direct service persons working with behaviorally disordered youth, examples of intervention alternatives geared toward teaching prosocial, adaptive and self-enhancing behaviors. . . ." Thus it is to focus on an important topic and contain practical advice for on-the-line professionals. The authors, each in their own way, have followed this directive. The monograph is an excellent testament to progress in the field, as it concentrates on realistic processes for enhancing prosocial behavior, rather than being content with efforts to "stamp out" negative behavior. The transition to teaching prosocial behavior represents a profound reorientation and introduces new dimensions of complexity to the educational task. The chapters bring together and extend matters raised in 1979 in *Behavioral Disorders*, Vol. 4, No. 2.

But the ultimate objective of improving the quality of the educational experience provided for behaviorally disordered youth will remain wishful thinking unless the concepts presented are incorporated into the professional practice of the readers. Accomplishing this is arduous, and dependent on a synthesis of the skills of both writer and reader. Consider the material any one of us has read or heard, and think how little of it we remember—let alone integrate into our practice.

The authors have done their part; it is now up to the readers to do their part. The chapters reflect first-hand knowledge, direct from the experience of the experts. To this they have added quality scholarship. Appropriate theory and research is reviewed to bring us to the cutting edge of practice. New psychological constructs are introduced, explained clearly and applied specifically to our work. But the goal is not just to inform the reader: it is to increase the effectiveness of classrooms. Through the use of classroom illustrations, the authors have worked diligently to show us how to apply the new ideas. Two underlying concerns are infused in almost every chapter. One is applying the practices to achieve successful mainstreaming. The other is maximizing transfer of what we teach in the classroom to the broad reaches of the pupil's life. "In-classroom success" is no longer considered sufficient.

So far, the promise of the book is evident. But providing another professional with help in the complicated business of educating disturbed youngsters is easier to write about than to accomplish. I am reminded by a recent re-examination of helping transactions that the helping process is never simple. Since we are all teachers, we know only too well how difficult it is to convert our best intentions into changes designed for someone else.

Why is it so difficult to learn from someone else's experience? Why do we ignore so much of what has been discovered by others who have gone before and gone further? In short, what stands in the way of sharing the benefit latent in this book? What will convert the promise into practice?

A reader never gets something for nothing. Insight is not free: it has to be earned. The chapters, regardless of their competent authorship, cannot make us an automatic bequest of help for our work. To obtain the latent benefit, the reader's effort must be equal to or even greater than the considerable effort of the writer. Even in direct interchanges, sharing insights or methodology is complicated. As we know from case conferences in such exchanges, nuances can be explored, ideas questioned and propositions tuned to the particular ecological situation. Yet even in such intimate transactions, it is a challenge to actually accomplish changes in our day-by-day work. The process by which proferred help in the more rigid format of the printed page is translated into new practice requires considerable discussion.

When a presentation results only in reinforcement of our current concepts, there is obviously no conflict and at the same time no potential for change. Such reading is easy and non-conflictual. We are all gratified by seeing our convictions in print. Part of this is because, on the firing line, one has to make so many instant decisions. To do this we have developed rubrics to justify our practice. It is most reassuring to have an expert tell us we are right and explain why we are right. But *new* learning requires some degree of shift or extension of one's current matrix of the professional and personal assumptions used to interpret events and verify our favored interventions. Part of our personal and professional Weltanschauung is consciously organized into a loose set of nuclear beliefs about young human beings, the nature of education, our role and what "works." When this is conscious, we recognize a struggle between the author and ourselves. We see the author's intent to have us replace our ideas with the proposed new ones. We then engage in our best

effort for objectivity to balance our resistance. We go through such defenses as "it won't work with my kids" or "our school would not permit it." In the end, we accept or reject after we have tested out the new ideas for our practice, we hope with objectivity.

But usually a great part of our modus operandi is not consciously articulated. Nevertheless, it steers our course and we may find ourselves rejecting new ideas out of hand. It seems to us the author does not know what he or she is talking about. The concepts are not clear, etc. It is just too hard a chapter to "read."

Thus, some of the chapters may be very easy to incorporate because they say what we already believe and fit with what we already do, while other chapters may not receive a sympathetic reading because of poor fit with our conscious or unconscious attitudes. To examine such chapters objectively requires that, at the same time, we also examine a great deal of our present belief system, sometimes even our most cherished notions. If we have the courage to do this, we open up the highest promise of learning. The outcome may be a clearer understanding of why we hold to our present concepts, an adaptation or a change. There are two chapters which are very good examples of this frontal challenge, cutting deeply into our personal and professional perception of helping. The first is the chapter by Rezmierski, which evolves from an extensive field experiment she conducted. She proposes a radical change in the way we do our business in special education by basing special education on a developmental paradigm, the normal progression of children towards maturity. She cuts through a great deal of ritual in her identification procedure, rids us of our special education separatism and relates our field to school mental health. She is concerned about the quality of the mainstream as well as about developmental deviations of our pupils in that mainstream. After discussing the new perspective, examples are given of its application. Then a detailed program of impulse management is presented with nine developmental stages. The selection and meaning of the interventions discussed comes from the developmental paradigm. The developmental orientation requires rethinking the basic assumptions most of us use, and will entail much new learning. The energy required for each one of us to understand and test out this model is obviously considerable.

A second major confrontation in this series of papers also bodes a major change in the concepts of the special teacher's role and interventions. Nichols says that theory about teaching children with behavior disorders has not faced its central commitment, namely the therapeutic responsibility of the teacher. Her premise is not new: in fact therapeutic education was the central core in the origin of the field. But the importance of the teacher as a therapist has been fought as part of the rejection of the medical model. The admonition has been "teachers not therapists" as if there were a dividing line. What she says about this aspect of the teacher role is new in two ways. First, she takes on the opposition and points out the limitations of their current restricted expectation for teachers. Second, she examines the sacred process of therapy with persuasive insights. The upshot of her discourse is a challenge not only to the special teacher but to our professional colleagues and to those who design the programs for the behavior disodered as well. Again we are asked to take a different view of our responsibility, which implies a major reconceptualization. Some of us may find this alien to what we have been taught as special education gospel. It will be difficult to judge the merit of her case on the evidence she presents while holding our preconceptions in neutral.

So much for the chapters which imply almost total restructuring of the field as the way to enhance prosocial behavior. The other chapters may generate similar challenges to the reader, although on more specific issues. The assistance to the teacher proposed by these experts fits the original intent of the book by presenting specific examples of intervention alternatives. The emphasis is on alternatives. Last year, in a first-year teacher seminar, the question was raised, "Why is there such a disparity in the suggestions for help proposed by experts?" The first-year teachers said that all of the proposals can't be equally correct. One expert advises tough love and another toleration. One speaks of contingencies and another of caring. On one hand, the literature of our field contains contentious diversity, produced by those who have found the one and only true solution for any problem the teacher faces. Such experts eschew alternatives. Fortunately for the reader, no such educational Khomeinies are found in this volume. But there are differences which come from overt and covert assumptions about the nature of children and adolescents and how we can help them learn the desired behaviors. Our authors tend to be more complementary than conflictual. This reduces the reader's burden of selecting the advice of one versus another chapter since both may be equally useful. However, some authors are more explicit than others in spelling out the age level or type of youngster they are considering in their examples.

There is legitimate diversity, even on the same theme, as authors select different elements from the whole scene for their attention. Obviously there may be various subgoals and even multiple paths to the same subgoal. There are philosophical differences on what is most important for students to learn, as we see in Brown's frank discussion of the "school game."

In this book, most of the chapters are specific and concrete even to the point of charts, check sheets and steps. By integrating the various suggestions, the reader can move beyond the specific focus of the single chapters, where particular elements have been put in focus. No one writer can cover every aspect. For example, Virdin's paper calls our attention to group phenomena and the importance of engineering peer support to facilitate prosocial behavior. He points out the necessity of sharing our problems if we are to survive, for we are social beings. This is followed by the methodology for the teacher-group leader. Teaching is, for the most part, a group enterprise. Frequently we see group dynamics only in the negative frame, getting in the way. In place of suppression, he proposes astute utilization of the resource of group process.

Glenn, Rueda and Rutherford take other directions toward the goal of social competency. As they say, the very term "social competency" has been a source of confusion; hence they provide a definition. The emphasis in this chapter is the recent shift from behavior modification as a manipulation practiced *on* the youngster to an incorporation of the youngster's own goals and cognitive skills. The cognitive approach is seen as basic in learning to handle one's own interpersonal problems. There is considerable new research and terminology in this chapter (metacognition for example), but terms are clearly explained. Steps for applying this model to the classroom are included.

The chapter by McGinnis continues the search for ways to substitute internal processes for external contingencies to provide limits for behavior. Even though the pupils may know the correct and effective behavior and want to behave correctly, they may still misbehave because they lack the necessary skills to enable their behavior to match their intent. Ergo, teach them the skills. The McGinnis chapter contains detailed instructions on how to diagnose the individual curriculum needed by a particular student to learn behavior control. While the emphasis is on elementary age children, the ideas can be applied to older children as well. Highly explicit classroom procedures are included in this selection.

Brown's chapter moves to another vector with an excellent example of the new, realistic special education curriculum. Her studies reveal that our pupils often fail in school because they have not learned to play the "student game." They need survival skills so that they can manage expectations both in special classes and in the mainstream where their behavior is mismatched to expectations. The ethical issues of teaching the school game are addressed forthrightly. She sees the game not as an end in itself but as the means of pupil survival in school. Brown's discussion of attribution theory and learned helplessness will be welcome additions to teacher understanding.

Neel emphasizes the value of bringing replacement social routines to children rather than simply trying to eradicate undesired behavior. Another strong point is the author's ecological focus. Teaching should be done at the time and in the context where the inadequate behavior occurs, and not in remote or artificial lessons. By following this procedure, generalization and transfer of the new skill can be achieved. The setting where the inadequate behavior occurs also must be examined for cues which set off the response. The program is individualized and pupil-focused. Natural environments are to be managed so they create the desired learning situations. You may find yourself described in the section of this chapter where pupils are shown to shape the teacher's behavior more than the teacher shapes pupils' behavior.

Conclusion

This book presents an opportunity for reaction and growth if the reader does not hold too tightly to his or her current conceptions. One has to hold conviction in abeyance to achieve objectivity. The acid test is *not*, "does this new idea have merit according to my present beliefs and practice?" It *is*, "does this idea have merit after a vigorous interaction?" It is not reading to memorize the content but reading to absorb and distill the useful propositions in order to fit them to our ideosyncratic situations. The reader will have to create the mosaic.

For some readers, incorporating the concepts in this book into new practice can be accomplished by private reactions on the margins of the chapters or in notebooks. For others, discussion with colleagues will be helpful. Many of the topics are suited to inservice meetings and conferences. A group of teachers might request one of the authors to hold a special workshop on a chapter after they have experimented with the new ideas it contains. No doubt about it — the book presents an opportunity for professional growth, but getting that change is a very individual matter and requires considerable personal investment by the reader. Again, one does not expect to get something for nothing.

WILLIAM C. MORSE is professor of education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Section I

Interventions — Theoretical

Developmental Interventions with Behaviorally Disordered Youth

by Virginia E. Rezmierski

VIRGINIA REZMIERSKI is assistant professor in special education at the University of Michigan, Dearborn.

Introduction

This monograph presents examples of intervention strategies for persons who work directly with behaviorally disordered youth. Accordingly, the charge to this author is to describe developmental interventions for this population. Several professionals are associated with the concept of developmental interventions, including M.M. Wood, D.L. Lillie, F. Hewett and others. However, if you asked these authors to name only one developmental intervention, and then to say no more, they would probably see the task as impossible. This is not because developmental interventions do not exist, but because more needs to be said in order to understand the framework that makes an intervention "developmental."

Development is not static; it is progressive and dynamic, and an intervention that may be appropriate and indeed "developmental" at one stage will not necessarily be so as the development of the child progresses. In this chapter, "developmental" refers to the sequence of behavioral changes, in a variety of domains, that follows the normal progression toward maturity. "Intervention" refers to adult behaviors, environmental adjustments and specific program or curricular offerings that are applied to promote change in child behavior.

In order to understand the importance of selecting or implementing developmental interventions, one must first understand the developmental approach and the orientation of practitioners who use this model. This caveat is not a disclaimer by the author, or an unwillingness to tackle the charge. Indeed, it would be much easier to select a favorite intervention and describe it in detail. But this would leave both the reader and the writer unsatisfied, and the developmental interventionists unrepresented.

This chapter presents the developmental perspective, briefly reviewing some recognized developmentally based intervention programs, and presents views on the need for a synthesis of approaches. It reviews the Intervention by Prescription (IBP) model, a developmentally based model that attempts to synthesize approaches across four major domains. A specific domain of functioning from this model will be discussed in detail — the development of impulse management. The key markers in the developmental process are discussed with a review of the most relevant research and theory. Specific implications from this area for intervention strategies are presented. Finally, the ties between development of impulse management, prescriptive interventions and curricular approaches are discussed.

The Developmental Perspective

The belief that there is a relatively standard progression of changes through which all children move as they mature is inherent in the developmental perspective. There is an abundance of general literature in the area of child development. Basically, these texts describe changes that take place with age in physical growth, intellectual skills, feelings and social relations. However, the specificity and integration of concepts in most of these leaves the reader wanting. Often, to understand a complex thing, we must disassemble it and examine its parts, even though it is the dynamic whole which we seek to understand. This seems to be the case as one attempts to understand the complex process of development in children. The task of conceptual reassembly often seems beyond our reach when we begin to appreciate the dynamic interplay between affect and cognition and their increasingly complex features. There is a conceptual logic to this material, however. The assumption is widely held that there is an orderliness to the normal progression toward maturity — a certain predictability in the sequence— and the "whole " then makes sense.

As a general guide to observing behavior, patterns can be identified in the course of development, and these patterns are relatively standard for most children at similar ages. Too often, only cliches and generalizations are retained from this more general information, however. There is more richness and depth to the process of development than is reflected in cliches like "adolescence is a time of turmoil." Educators want more detail and specificity as they try to understand children and the behaviors children produce. The promise that a more detailed description of development is possible, one that examines one domain of functioning at a time, has appeal for practitioners. Such information may provide more guidance for their inquiry, diagnosis, and selection of interventions.

Some developmentalists hold the belief that there is a definite hierarchy in development; within a particular area, the stages of development can be identified, and all children progress through the same hierarchy as they develop. The set of assumptions that underlie developmental hierarchial theories has been described by several authors, including Kohlberg (1971) and Piaget (1962). The basic premises of these theories are:

Children are inspiringly different. They each bring a very different potential to their developmental areas.

1. Stages are observable. Patterns exist that are sufficiently different from one another to be distinguished.
2. Stages are not tied to age, but correspond to age.
3. Rate of progress through stages proceeds at a pace that allows for mutuality between innate structures and the changing demands of the environment.
4. Specific stages exist for various domains of child functions; the absolute number of stages varies.
5. Progress through stages occurs in a logical manner. The order a child goes through stages of development is invariant.
7. Modal patterns are most representative of a child's level of functioning. However, different levels of development can be observed depending on circumstances.

It is very attractive to think that when we look at a particular area of child functioning — be it affective, social or other — we might know the sequence of development, identify how a particular child is progressing, know the next level to be obtained and even select our programs and responses in order to facilitate the emergence of the next level of development. The notion promises prescriptiveness and interventions that are not only based on problem areas, pathology and deficits, but on a picture of normalcy, growth and strengths as well.

Not all theorists or practitioners have grasped this approach to their bosoms, however. The controversies that surround the hierarchial development approach in education and psychology are very well delineated by Phillips and Kelly (1975). The greatest difficulty for most who oppose this approach is the assumption of invariant order in the stages and the present lack of empirical research. Opponents are quick to point out that children are inspiringly different and that they each bring a very different potential to their developmental areas. To assume that children will progress through the same stages in an invariant order feels restrictive and illogical. Those who hold the hierarchial developmental position, however, while admitting the current paucity of empirical evidence for the actual stages, emphasize that the speed that individuals progress through the stages certainly varies. How far an individual will be able to develop in the overall sequence is based on the degree to which the individual's needs and abilities are nurtured, and supported by the many different areas in which they develop and the adults in them. It is by no means my intent to try to solve this controversy, nor even to spell it out in its full detail. Rather, my intent is to underscore the usefulness of this developmental perspective for educators and clinicians, particularly those who wish to be prescriptive with students who experience emotional and behavioral difficulties.

Developmentally Based Intervention Models

The developmental perspective has been employed by a number of model developers. Attempts have been made to match adult responses and learning environments with children's developmental needs in the areas of learning, interpersonal relations, environmental interactions and affective development. These models vary in the aspect of development they focus on, and also the degree to which development stages are specified. However, the basic intent of each model is the same: to match environment and adult interaction with student needs. Several models illustrate the aspects of development and the methods used to adjust environmental responses.

Note that there are no secondary or elementary grade distinctions as such in these models. In accordance with the concept of progression, the needs of the student are identified at whatever level they exist and programming is adjusted accordingly. While certain needs and programs would be more commonly found at some age levels, it is possible that a secondary-age student may demonstrate lower level needs and therefore require a program and an environment more often associated with a younger student. The belief in these models is that the developmental level, not the age of the student, should dictate the appropriate response and therapeutic environment.

1. The Engineered Classroom Model. Wood and Swan (1978) state that, "Hewett (1968) was the first to introduce and evaluate the effects of using a developmental hierarchy of educational goals on the academic achievement of emotionally disturbed school-age boys" (p. 197). Hewett's model was first known as the "engineered classroom." It is now referred to as a "procedure for orchestrating success." In this model,

Hewett identified six levels of learning competence that are developmentally sequenced in order of their complexity. From simplest to most complex, the six competencies are: attention, response, order, exploratory, social and mastery. The model requires that the child's learning needs, according to the competency hierarchy, are carefully matched with the curriculum presented. Adult responses are also carefully planned to reinforce the task identified, the competency level. The engineered classroom model combines the concept of developmentally sequenced learning competencies with a behaviorist approach to curriculum and adult reinforcements.

2. Interpersonal Maturity Level Model. In 1969, M. Warren described a model for the treatment of deliquent youth. The model, known as the "I-level system," identified a developmental sequence in interpersonal relations. The sequence represents increasingly mature personality integrations or levels of functioning. The system allows practitioners to examine the behavior of a student and compare that behavior pattern with characteristics representative of one of the six levels of interpersonal maturity. The "I-level" is then matched with specific treatment prescriptions. For example, Warren identifies the lowest I-level as asocial. At this level, behavior is characterized as primitive, impulsive, insecure, inadequate, maladaptive, hostile and non-trusting. The treatment prescribed for this level is clear and concrete structure of low pressure; warmth and acceptance, and slow and supportive direction toward conformity.

3. The Conceptual Level Model. The conceptual level model describes how an individual relates to his or her environment (Harvey, Hunt and Schroder, 1961). The model defines three general levels of relationships with the environment: unsocialized, dependent and independent. For each level, characteristic behavior patterns are described. For each level, the environments needed to facilitate further development are also identified. "To achieve maximum results, the student's conceptual level or developmental stage must be matched with an environment that contains the appropriate degree of structure" (Rich, 1982, p. 293).

The conceptual level model and the interpersonal maturity level model have striking similarities. They basically describe very general stage differences in an individual's maturing interactions with his or her environment. Whereas the Hewett model more clearly addresses learning tasks, these models generally address the maturation of impulse management and the integration of structure into cognitive process.

4. The Ecological Integration Model. Swap (1974), emphasizing the interaction between learning environments and student needs, describes an ecological treatment model for understanding and responding to disturbing classroom behaviors. In this model, Swap integrates Hewett's educationally based developmental model with Erikson's psychologically based developmental model. The result is a description of the "triggering behaviors" that might be expected for a given child at the various developmental stages describd by Erikson and Hewett. The adaptive environmental response needed to appropriately support the child's level of development at each stage is identified. The significance of this approach is that it emphasizes the nature of children as developing beings for whom different supports are appropriate at different stages of development. This critical interaction between developmentally changing organisms and support systems is the basis of the ecological approach. It places the concept of disturbance between person and environment, making it a product of both rather than putting sole responsibility for behavior on the child. Underscoring the ecological principles represented in this model, Swap writes, "Emotional disturbance is not viewed as the inevitable outcome of difficulty in negotiating developmental stages. If disturbance occurs, it is because of the interaction between the child and critical persons in the child's environment." (Swap, 1974, p. 169)

The next three models are similar in that they are highly detailed in curriculum recommendations. Several domains of development are considered, and curricular requirements are specified for each level.

5. The Sequential Development Task Analysis Model. The Sequential Development Task Analysis (SDTA) model is a curriculum approach developed by D. Ashurst.

> The foundation of the SDTA process is the developmental assessment of an individual's functioning in cognition, language, social-affective behaviors, motor and life skills. Through comparison of an individual's performance with normal developmental milestones, educators can objectively identify major levels of functioning, gaps in development, emergent concepts and splinter skills or non-integrated behaviors. (Bamberg and Fentman, 1978, p.1).

The Ecological Integration Model emphasizes the nature of children as developing beings.

The Matching Model provides a conceptual framework for finding congruency between student needs and environmental provisions.

This model allows educators to match teaching styles and curriculum to the developmental needs of the individual in several domains.

6. The Developmental Task Instructional System. The Developmental Task Instructional System is also a developmentally based curriculum program. Developed by D. Lillie, it is primarily designed to "prepare three-, four- and five-year-old children to cope successfully with the demands of society" (Lillie, 1975, p. 18)

The program is based on common developmental hierarchial assumptions: "it is assumed that motor development, perceptual development, reasoning development and language development all take place in an irreversible sequence," (Lillie, 1975, p.18).

A careful coordination of assessment and instruction is designed in this model. Students are developmentally assessed in six areas: fine motor, gross motor, visual perception, reasoning, receptive language and expressive language. From the assessment, teachers identify the developmental objective to be reached and arrange instructional activities specifically to meet the developmental task.

7. The Developmental Therapy Model. Probably the name most closely associated with developmental intervention is Mary M. Wood. Wood (1975) integrates developmental principles and the psychoeducational approach in the treatment of severely disturbed young children. The model, called the Developmental Therapy model, is a carefully engineered curriculum. It spells out not only the appropriate and prescriptive intervention for a given level of development, but also the appropriate role of the teacher, techniques to be used, and the environment and experiences needed to foster development.

> The process is seen as a developmental progression in which the elimination of pathological behavior and the stimulation of developmentally appropriate behavior closely follow normal sequences of maturation. By systematically utilizing developmentally suitable experiences in the therapy program, the occurrence of constructive behaviors is stimulated. Each small, sequential experience represents a step toward normal maturation and development. (Wood, 1975, p.5)

There are five stages in the Developmental Therapy approach:

1. responding to the environment with pleasure;
2. responding to the environment with success;
3. learning skills for successful group participation;
4. investing in group process;
5. applying individual and group skills in new situations.

Wood and Swan (1978) reported data they feel suggest that there is a hierarchial sequence to the stages identified in the Developmental Therapy model. They conclude that "the concept of hierarchial integration of lower level skills into more complex skills, as suggested by stage theorists, can be seen in the proportion of objectives mastered within each curriculum area across stages" (p. 207).

8. The Matching Model. The matching model was developed from the theoretical literature and research studies associated with educational strategies, emotional disturbance and person-environment interactions. Rich (1982) describes a continuum of functioning from basic to advanced. The model is designed to promote congruency between the student's developmental needs and educational objectives, intervention strategies, teaching style and management strategies. Rich suggests the need for integrating approaches in the education of disturbed students. The matching model assists practitioners in adjusting strategies and styles according to recognized needs. The model, following a developmental perspective, is dynamic in nature. "As disturbed students achieve the hierarchial educational objectives and/or behavior changes to a more advanced level, the intervention strategy, teacher style and management strategies need to shift accordingly" (Rich, 1982, p. 303).

The matching model represents a conceptual integration of some of the models discussed earlier. While it does not specify roles and curricular objectives in the same detail, it does provide a conceptual framework for teachers to use in striving for congruency between student needs and environmental provisions.

Research and Theory: Synthesis from Theory to Practice

By now, some readers have surely wanted more specifics. Some probably have thought, "just describe a good behavioral intervention or even a specific psychoeducational one, and let's be on with it." While specificity is surely desirable, the need for identity with treatment camps is not. More and more, theorists and practitioners are recognizing that using only one treatment technology is insufficient for the problems we face as educators of emotionally disturbed and behaviorally disordered youth. In fact, using one only technology is insufficient for work with normal children, and we should have become comfortable with that fact long ago. Increasingly, the need for a synthesis of approaches, an integration of parts, is valued.

"Synthesis" is defined in the *American Heritage Dictionary* as, "the combining of separate elements or substances to form a *coherent* whole." A synthesis of theories is desired, not a mix. There is an important distinction to be made. Synthesis does not mean mix. The treatment techniques and approaches are different, and they cannot be made to look like each other.

Morse noted, "There seems to be a great need to have the one and only elixir of cure, be it behavior modification or family therapy. Nowadays there is even an effort to show how all are one and the same by compulsive professionals who cannot stand to be different" (1981, p. 15).

Blending the theories is not appropriate; the essence of the various approaches will be lost or masked. But a synthesis of technologies can be accomplished. On the foundation of normal developmental theory, each camp can function and contribute to a very rich treatment "whole." In reference to different treatment modalities Morse continued:

> One is not better than another: one is more appropriate for a given youngster in a given setting for given goals. There is a need for behavior modification, cognitive learning, learning through relationships and expressive media. The fact is, with all the modes, we do not seem to be doing as well as we should. (1981, p.15).

There are limitations in the degree to which psychoanalytic and behavioral therapy can be integrated. Basic assumptions underlying the two camps probably cannot be reconciled. Messer and Winokur (1980) describe these limitations in detail. For practitioners who work daily with very complex, difficult, disturbed students, however, a full integration of these two theoretical positions is hardly the critical priority. What is important is that the best of these technologies be made available and synthesized into a working whole, a framework that assists educators in knowing which technology is most appropriate at a given stage in a child's development. Garner has called for a "Truce in the War for the Child." He writes, "It is becoming clear that children who receive help from only one of the two camps are being denied the kind of comprehensive treatment and training they must receive if they are to experience their full potential as human beings" (1976, p.315).

But is a synthesis possible? The developmentally based models previously reviewed each integrate different aspects of the behavioral approach and the psychoeducational perspective. One of the dangers in these attempts is that because we still know too little about the specifics of development in various domains, we may over-generalize the theoretical insights and dwell on curricular approaches that are not well-founded. As educators, we often feel more comfortable working with curriculum than with theory. At least in our separate treatment camps, those subscribing to the behaviorist approach have remained relatively disciplined to a learning theory base, and the psychoeducators, more or less, to the analytic orientation. In the process of synthesizing then, we need to take care not to create new adult rituals, new systems that are not founded in a theoretical base and that are fragmented bits from many different sources.

Developmental theories hold promise of being synthesized as a firm foundation from which to view and select multiple technologies. Such a synthesis fosters an understanding of cognition and affect as complexly intertwined. It can help practitioners resist artificial dissection of this important "whole," and focus only on behavior, on learning or affect. It can significantly enhance and extend our understanding and treatment of the developing individual.

Theorists and practitioners are recognizing that using only one treatment technology is insufficient.

The richest diagnostic data lie in students' perceptions and behaviors, not in adult "paper and pencil" rituals.

The Intervention by Prescription Model

In 1979-1982 a new developmentally based model was designed. This model, Intervention by Prescription (IBP), synthesizes developmental hierarchial theories and couches them in a problem-solving framework. This was done to bring developmental information into better readiness for use by practitioners. The IBP model was the product of a U.S. Department of Education model project for school-aged handicapped youth. The goal of the project was to design and demonstrate the usefulness of a developmentally based diagnostic-intervention model for work with emotionally stressed students. Project personnel followed Bijou's belief that, "a well trained model constructor is truly one who 'stands on the shoulders of giants,'" (1977, p.7). The giants upon whose shoulders we selected to stand were the developmental hierarchial theorists: Loevinger, Erikson, Piaget, Kohlberg, Selman and others.

Central to the IBP problem-solving process is an individual assessment schemata that helps diagnosticians and other practitioners understand the student's development. The developers believed that there are arenas of child functioning that seem to be more saturated with critical data than others. These arenas, or domains, should be concentrated on for data gathering and diagnosis, and for basing decisions regarding prescriptive interventions. Accordingly, four domains of development were selected: impulse management, affective investment, social understanding and conflict resolution.

In this model, practitioners are encouraged to concentrate their assessment efforts in direct contact with the student. It is in the student's perceptions, understandings, reasoning, explanations and behaviors that the richest diagnostic data lie, not within our adult "paper and pencil" rituals. The developers of the IBP model hypothesized that when a child's development across domains is significantly erratic, the potential for pathology is greatest. This is due to the inevitable conflict between the student's behaviors, adult expectations, and the environment's ability to provide appropriately for such erratic development.

Although the IBP model is an integrated problem-solving system that takes into account development in each of the areas, this chapter describes only one domain, impulse management. This model is currently being refined as it is replicated in various school sites. From these replications, we expect further insights to be added to the model. The synthesis of concepts in this area is presented here because impulse management is central to the concerns of teachers of behaviorally disordered students. The behavioral emphasis automatically applied when impulse management is explored does not make this domain the best for illustrating the direct child inquiry method so important to the IBP model; that is better illustrated in the other domains. Nevertheless, this schema is ideal for representing how a synthesis of approaches, behavioral and psychoeducational, can be achieved and their prescriptiveness determined in the light of developmental theory.

Impulse Management: Empirical and Conceptual Basis

According to the IBP model, the ability to manage impulses develops in a relatively predictable fashion and is observable in behavioral patterns. To better understand and describe this phenomenon, it has been broken down into three parts. The first is the processes which change during development. The next part is the actual behavioral stages. The stages emerge with development and it is believed that all children progress through these in the same order. Examples are given of the behavioral pattern representative of each stage. The third part is stage implications. These indicate the environmental supports, interpersonal processes, environmental characteristics and learning experiences that are prescriptive for each developmental stage.

The Changing Processes

To look more carefully at the development of impulse control, one must examine two changing processes: the source of control and the role of cognition (*Figure 1*). The arrow at the left of *Figure 1* depicts the process of shifting from dependency on external sources for controlling impulses to a reliance on internal sources of control. There are key behavior markers in this process. First, it is necessary for children to be able to self-observe; they must be able to see their part in an interaction and to associate their own behavior with the environmental responses. Goldfried and Merbaum (1973) identified the ability for self-observation as one of the essential cognitive skills in a long-term behavioral self-control program.

The second key marker in this progression is the ability to employ self-talk. Vygotsky (1962) sees internalization of verbal commands as the critical step in the child's development of voluntary control of his or her behavior. Luria (1961) identifies three stages in developing internalization of impulse control. The child, according to Luria, is first controlled by verbal instructions and reactions of persons external to himself or herself, (e.g., parents). "The child then begins to regulate some of his own actions through audible self-talk. And finally the self statements become covert." (Meichenbaum, 1976, p.227).

This progression from external to internal control of behavior is generally accepted. Methods for providing external control have been amply described by authors who subscribe to learning theory approaches. More recently the role of cognition has gained attention in behavioral literature. Several authors describe the process of teaching children to use cognitive processes to control behavior. Among these are Meichenbaum (1976), Goldfried and Merbaum (1973) and others. Studies have shown that prosocial behavior can be increased (O'Leary, 1968), disruptive behavior decreased (Hartig and Kanfer, 1973), and performance improved (Meichenbaum and Goodman, 1969). The strongest effects have been found when an adult modeling self-talk is combined with instruction in self-talk for the student (Meichenbaum and Cameron, 1973). A comprehensive review of the literature has been provided by Polsgrove (1979).

It should be recognized however, that the progression from use of external to internal controls is more complex than simply learning cognitive skills. The responses of the individual to the source of control and the meaning that control, and controlling, may have for the individual, adds a new dimension. The concerns of the psychoeducators begin to come into focus. Using a base of social learning theory, Rotter (1966) discusses the concept of internal vs. external control in terms of the person's own perceptions of control as a psychological variable. The exercise of internal control may meet other needs as well, and be more than a learned response. It may have other effects on personality development. Indications are that promotion of internal control is associated with self-assertiveness, activism, hopefulness and positive coping, whereas an ideology of external control accompanies defeatism, helplessness, passivity and depression (McGhee and Grandall, 1968; Rotter, 1966; Rotter, Seeman and Liverant, 1962).

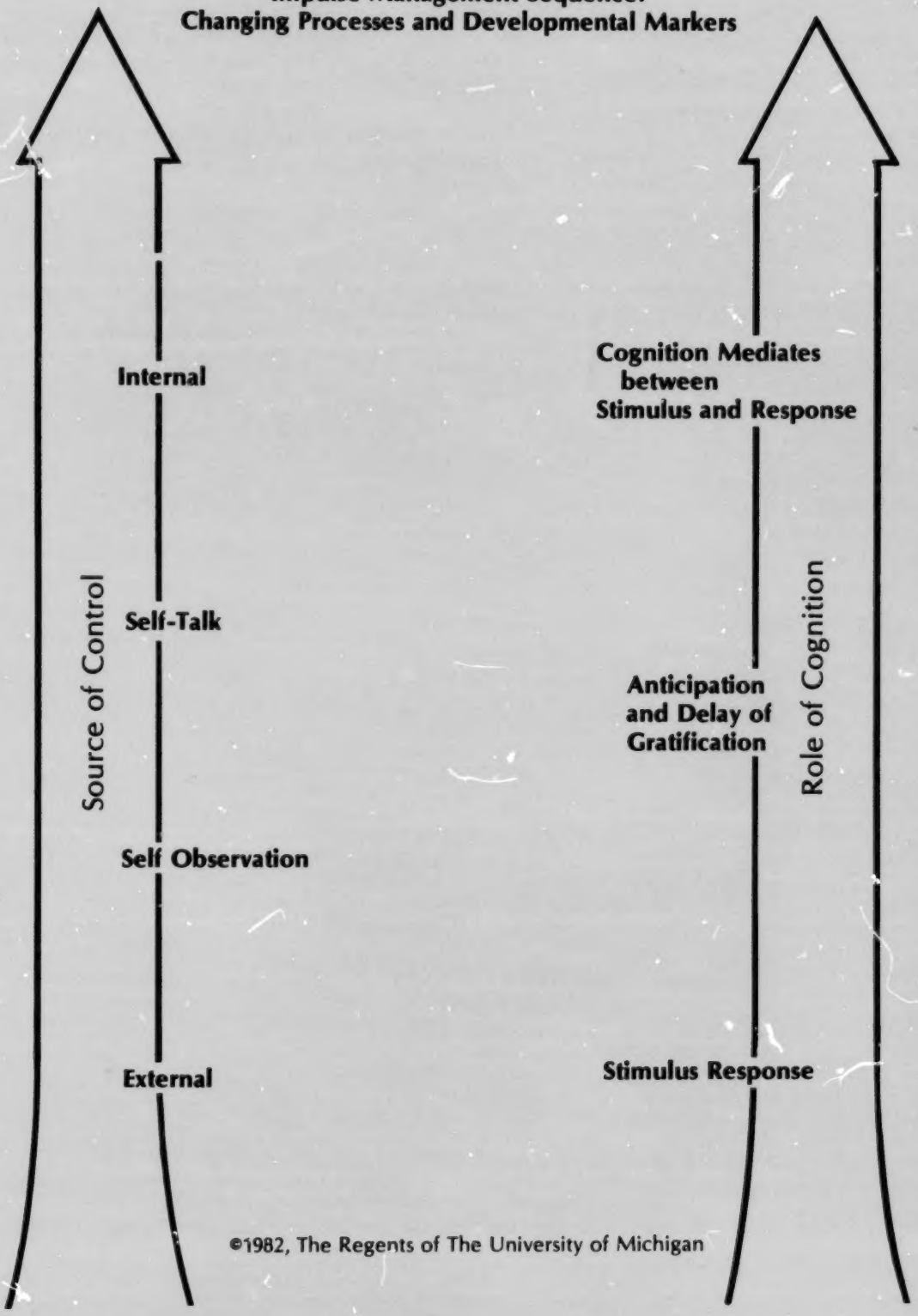
The work of deCharms suggests another dimension to be given attention, the role of personal responsibility. In describing the results of his motivation project, deCharms indicates that impulsive students have a generalized orientation to external control. They "tended to see their behavior as dependent on parents and authorities. . ." (1976, p.187). Therefore children who were low in impulse control saw themselves as more dependent on external sources for control. deCharms conceptualizes a process of development that parallels the ego development stages described by Loevinger (1966). The individual progresses from being a Pawn, acted on and controlled by outside forces, to an Origin, able to control responses, goals and decisions. In the IBP model, the concept of changing pawn and origin orientation is included in the domain of conflict resolution. However, it also relates to the process of ego growth and the assumption of responsibility for behavioral control—the progression from externalization to internalization.

As with so many aspects of behavior, more needs to be discovered before we may fully understand how this progression takes place. It is relatively clear, however, that it does occur, that it involves behavior, thought and feelings and that there are significant markers in the process. It is also clear that this development should be supported and fostered for all children.

The progression from use of external to internal controls is more complex than simply learning cognitive skills.

Figure 1

Impulse Management Sequence:
Changing Processes and Developmental Markers



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The ability to anticipate and to delay gratification is a major marker in developing impulse management.

> We are impressed that so many sources converge at the common conclusion that motivation for self-control has been an extremely powerful factor in the disruptive or deviant behavior of large numbers of young people. Furthermore, we are deeply concerned by the educational system's apparent reluctance to provide for the development and exercise of self-control. (Fagen, Long and Stevens, 1975, p.15).

The second major process that changes in the development of impulse management is the role of cognition. This is represented on the arrow at the right side of *Figure 1*. Of course, cognition was involved in changing the source of control. As a person learns to self-talk, cognition exists. The changing role of cognition can be better seen however, as we view the right side of *Figure 1*. Human behavior changes from a primarily stimulus-response pattern to a stimulus-cognition-response pattern. Increasingly, the process of thinking mediates between the stimulus and reactions, and effects our responses. The concept of teaching a child to self-talk is based on the belief that it is possible to interrupt a response chain by inserting cognition between the stimulus and response (Meichenbaum, 1976).

The major markers in this process are the abilities to anticipate outcomes and to delay gratification. These functions seem to be inseparable in development. As individuals gain increased experiences and can synthesize these into a view of the world around them, they begin to organize their perceptions. If the environment and the adult responses have been consistant and predictable, the individual begins to associate particular conditions and responses with his or her own behaviors. This ability to anticipate is a sign of the ego's organization ability, and leads directly to the ability to delay gratification. According to Freud (1963), developing the ability to delay gratification is a major step in the shift from chaotic, diffuse primary-process thinking to synthetic, goal-directed, reality-oriented, secondary-process thinking (as cited in Erikson and Roberts, 1971, p.382).

Delay of gratification has been studied by several authors. Erikson and Roberts (1971) found that delinquent boys who chose to delay immediate gratification differed from other deliquents in that they were less impulsive, more able to delay gratification and perceive more internal control over their behavior. Rotek, Wessman and Gorman (1977) explored the relationship between temporal span and delay of gratification. They found that temporal span and capacity to delay gratification were both strongly related to age and to stage of cognitive development. Davids (1969) studied disturbed and normal children's abilities to delay gratification. He found that "when the task calls for a voluntary slowing down of response, with inhibition of motor movements, the disturbed children function much less effectively than do the normal children" (p.67). The ability to anticipate and to delay gratification is viewed in the Intervention by Prescription model as a major marker in developing impulse management.

Understanding the processes involved in the development of impulse management—the changing source of control and the role of cognition—is important. Once we understand the processes in operation, student behaviors take on more meaning. Behaviors reflect progress, or lack of it, toward acquiring more cognitive skills and personal power, or an integration of the two. It is particularly important to have such a framework when we try to understand the behavior of disturbed and behaviorally disordered youth, where the lack of impulse control so often plays a major role. This understanding provides practitioners with a theoretical base for assessing development and progress of an individual student. The developmental markers become skills to foster, skills to teach, and goals for programs to focus on. While we may teach to and foster the processes, developmentalists firmly believe that the stages of development emerge. In identifying the stage a child is at, we may gain insight into his or her behavior. However, one cannot teach the student to behave at the next higher stage. The integration of affect and cognition that occurs to produce a given behavioral pattern is the product of experiences, new cognitive abilities and psychological development. It cannot be taught. This chapter next examines the actual behavioral stages children progress through as they develop impulse management abilities.

Assessment

Developmental assessment plays an important role in the IBP model. It is facilitated by a basic question-and-answer format. The specific stages children are thought to move through as they develop the ability to manage impulses have been identified. As this model is refined, these stages will also be further elaborated. *Figure 2* shows the nine stages identified to date. They are arranged in the order they emerge in the course of development. The stages represent behavioral patterns and reflect different levels of functioning in relation to the changing processes previously described. The reader is encouraged to compare *Figures 1* and *2* as the specific stages are discussed. In comparing, you will see how the different stages reflect the increasing influence of cognition, feelings and internalization of control on behavior. The spiral depicts the dynamic continuous nature of development, and the distinct yet related stages, each one arising from the previous one.

The basic question asked when assessing impulse management is "How are impulses managed?" There are nine identified potential answers to this question. In the IBP model, the question and potential answers are used as a cueing system to assist practitioners in systematically exploring this area of development. Practitioners seek to discover the answer that best represents a particular student's level of functioning. They do this by observing the student, and by discussing the student's behavior with the parent, teacher, peers and student. Information may also be assembled by experimentally creating conditions under which the student will need to exercise impulse control. Through observations, the diagnostician can gain insight into the student's level of development.

The IBP study found that a modal behavior could be identified—the behavior pattern that represented the most frequent type of response to the management of impulses. It was also possible to identify the type of behavior likely to be produced under optimal conditions, and under unfavorable conditions. In fact, when the research staff and local interventionists judged the same written descriptions of different student behaviors, their reliability in judging the developmental level of impulse management was .95 (Rezmierski and Shiffler in preparation).

When doing developmental assessment, it is important to recognize that one observation will not give sufficient information to determine the modal level of functioning. Several sources of information are highly desirable. It is also important to draw information from several different periods in a school day, as well as from different ecologies in the student's life. Developmental stages are associated with ages, and it is possible to identify the age at which children typically reach each stage. However, it is unwise to rely solely on ages in doing assessment. The lack of empirical evidence for the stages requires caution. Also, many disturbed and behaviorally disordered students show behavioral patterns at developmental stages far below the norm for their age. A developmental intervention must be designed; it must fit the developmental level of the student, not the age level. This is particularly difficult, it seems, when assessing older students. In assessment at this level, we tend to ignore our findings and to treat the students in ways that feel appropriate to their age, not their stage.

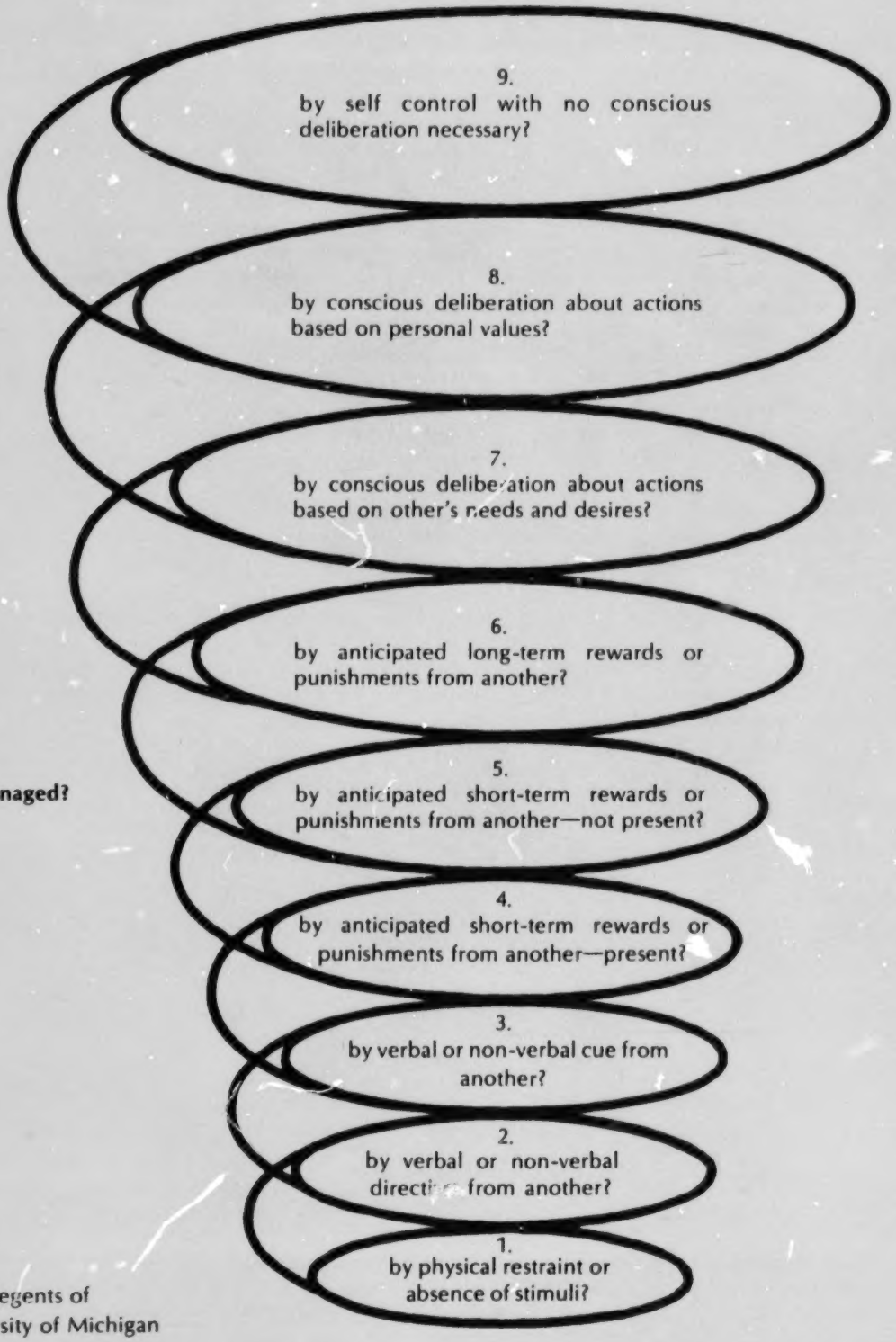
The Stages

Figure 2 represents the developmental stages.

Students functioning at the lowest level of impulse control manage their impulses primarily through *physical restraint by the adult or an absence of stimuli*. At stage one, children are almost totally dependent on the external environment to provide control over their impulses. They are primarily stimulus-response bound. Teachers of seriously disturbed or behaviorally disordered students will recognize this behavior pattern. Teachers in infant programs will also recognize this level. Highly seductive learning materials, water or high stimulus objects such as noise makers, bouncing and rolling objects, etc., cause havoc for teachers of students at this level. The students seem drawn to the stimuli. They are unable to avoid the objects unless the adult intervenes or the object is removed. In a program for seriously emotionally disturbed boys in the Syracuse schools, the presence of a sink in the classroom provided many opportunities to observe impulse management at this low level. Two of the boys were unable to pass near the sink without being physically escorted past it. The appeal of water play and their fascination with the power of the faucet proved seductive beyond their impulse management abilities.

Figure 2

Impulse Management Sequence:
Stages of Development


9.
by self control with no conscious deliberation necessary?
8.
by conscious deliberation about actions based on personal values?
7.
by conscious deliberation about actions based on other's needs and desires?
6.
by anticipated long-term rewards or punishments from another?
5.
by anticipated short-term rewards or punishments from another—not present?
4.
by anticipated short-term rewards or punishments from another—present?
3.
by verbal or non-verbal cue from another?
2.
by verbal or non-verbal direction from another?
1.
by physical restraint or absence of stimuli?

How are impulses managed?

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The second observable stage of impulse development is characterized by an ability to manage impulses only if a *verbal or non-verbal directive* from someone in the environment is provided. Children at this level depend on the adult's words. Such directives as, "John, do not touch that sink;" "Sit down;" "Don't touch that;" "Stand next to your desk;" are needed to control the behaviors. Non-verbal directives may also be helpful to children at this level. Gestures with directive meaning assert the same kind of external influence over the student's behavior. They provide the same necessary support for impulse management. A gesture that firmly points to the student's chair will convey the same control meaning as "sit down," after it has been used several times in conjunction with the verbal message. Likewise, there are strong non-verbal gestures for stopping a behavior, for coming, and others that assist students at this stage. The important distinction here is that the authority for behavioral change is provided by external sources; in this case it comes from the adult presence and behavior. It matters little if the message is verbal or non-verbal if the adult is not prepared to carry through on the control directive. At this level, students depend on the ability of things and people in the environment to help provide control over their impulses. Therefore, if a directive such as "sit down," is given, the adult must wait until the student has complied before changing focus. We often error with students at this level by giving directives and then too quickly going on to other students or tasks. The support of the external directive is not really there if we are not prepared to follow through.

The intensity of the external control begins to give way to more internal associations in the student at stage three. Here the student's impulses are managed *by verbal or non-verbal cueing* from another. At this stage, the student is reminded of the directive by the use of signs, key words and signals. The teacher may say, "John, remember;" "Think;" "Hold on;" and other such private and abbreviated communications. Signaling systems may be devised between the teacher and the student. Signal systems are reported as highly effective by some teachers who work with impulsive students. A privately determined set of signals between a student and teacher can serve as a whole conversation in some cases. The child alerts the teacher to his or her increased stress or frustration, and the teacher signals permission to move to a more controlled area in the classroom, and so on. The adult acts as a cueing system for the student who begins to associate the cue with the responses that have previously followed such behavior. At this level, the student is simply associating behavior with a cue from the environment; the behavior is brought increasingly to the conscious level.

Stages four, five and six are basically expansions of one process, the ability to delay gratification. At the lowest of these levels, the student requires *short-term rewards from a person in the environment.* The student depends on the active involvement of the environment at this level. Reinforcements from the environment must be closely associated with the behavior for the student to maintain this connection. Students at this level may momentarily resist responding to a provocation from another student, but will often look immediately to the teacher, or say, "I didn't get involved, Mrs. Jones." They are able to resist temptation and control their impulses, but only for short times and only in light of relatively immediate supports.

A significant change takes place at stage five: the student is able to delay gratification one step further, even if the teacher is not in the room. The length of delay is still short, however. We often see examples of this level of functioning in elementary grades. Students may be working diligently, maintaining frustration tolerance, controlling their impulses to play with toys and other gadgets in the room, while the teacher is at his or her desk. With everything going smoothly, the teacher steps through the doorway to speak with someone in the hall. Within minutes, several students are out of their seats, perhaps missiles of various descriptions have even crossed the room. Often the teacher re-enters the classroom, with any one of several emotions in full expression: anger, disappointment, embarrassment, frustration or confusion. Realizing that some of these children could be expected to lose control of their impulses under these conditions can help avoid such adult frustration. Children at stage five can delay even when the adult is not present, but not for long.

At stage six, students have gained some tools for helping them maintain self-control. These tools, the accumulation of experience and the ability to self-instruct, help them manage impulses for longer periods. They anticipate *long-term rewards from another person*. Most often these rewards are from the classroom teacher. However, rewards may also be anticipated from parents or other significant persons in their lives. Students at this level can manage impulses, even in the face of increasingly lengthy delays between their needs and gratification of those needs. For some students, being able to wait for the teacher's attention until the reading group is over is long-term gratification; albeit, in adult perceptions it is shorter than we would like. If the environment is predictable in meeting needs, this period lengthens. Stickers and other accumulative signs of reinforcement begin to influence behavior. This stage of lengthening delay is

probably variant with different impulses. Certainly there are some impulses that seem difficult to manage well into adulthood. It is also probable that this stage is accomplished over a prolonged period of time. These issues are in need of empirical study.

At stage seven, impulses are managed by *conscious deliberation about actions based on others' needs and desires*. At this stage, a new dimension becomes obvious. It is seen not so much through observing student behavior, as through interviews with them about the reasons behind their behavior. Questions such as "Why didn't you. . . . .?" and "What would make you not. . . . .?" are valuable sources of information for adults trying to understand student behavior. Responses such as "I would have taken that seat, but I know Jim likes to be in the front," or "I'm not going to do that, because my mom would be really mad," add to our understanding of the student's development. The new dimension is obvious in the reasons given. The student is considering the desires of someone else, and that consideration influences the behavior produced. Certainly this is an important element for social as well as continued affective development. The ability to consider others' needs before acting shows the mediation of cognition between stimulus and response. It also reflects a growing sense of personal decision making, perhaps representative of the increased internalization and origin orientation.

With increased internalization and personal causation, stage eight emerges. Impulses are controlled by *conscious deliberation about actions based on personal values*. Students at this level reflect decision making coupled with statements of their own values. It would be naive to assume that these values are solely their own. They have been established through the influence of others. The important part is that students perceive the values as their own. The students' statements reflect an association between the students' decision making and their values.

Finally, at stage nine impulses are managed by *self control with no conscious deliberation necessary*. This level represents complete internalization of control. Assertion over impulses is totally controlled by the person, without need for external controls, or even conscious, cognitive assists. It is obvious that students with behavioral disorders are probably never seen at this level. My own understanding of this process is that few adults reach this level. Many have difficulty managing specific impulses and function at lower levels. Questions such as the following arise: Do some impulses resist this progression towards internal management? Are some impulses more readily the cause of regressed levels of functioning than others? Certainly these questions cannot be answered with empirical certainty now. These issues and others regarding developmental stage theory need study. Still, it is possible to see how assessment may be enhanced by such purposeful exploration of the domain of impulse management. The stages help direct purposeful assessment and meaningful assembly of the information gathered.

Intervention Description

The reader may now see how to proceed in determining a "developmental intervention." It is necessary to understand the processes involved in the development of a particular domain of functions; next, to assess student progress in terms of the normal progression of changes in that domain. Recognizing the general progression of growth in a particular domain, we may better understand the unique pattern of a student and anticipate the next levels likely to emerge. We may also identify the environmental and human supports necessary to facilitate or restore further growth for that student.

> Recognizing those impulses which dominate the behaviors in early childhood, the adult must tread between the boundaries of overburdening the child with demands on the one hand and of failing to provide sufficient controls for him on the other hand. Only when educational objectives and methods are designed within the context of the sequence of development of the students can they be appropriate and effective. (Bobroff, 1960, p.336).

"Treading" is far more difficult for teachers who must also adjust their reactions and expectations to work with students whose development is regressed or lagging in a particular area. This is particularly so in impulse management for teachers of behaviorally disordered students.

Figure 3 illustrates an extrapolation from developmental stages to implication for practice as designed in the IBP model. "Implications" indicates the environmental modifications and supports, adult responses and skills that must be provided to support a student at each level. The basic question is: "What does each stage imply for environmental and human intervention strategies, in order that they might facilitate the emergence of the next developmental stage?" As each of these stage implications are discussed, brief mention will be made of currently available curricular programs to help meet student needs for each level.

Figure 3

Impulse Management Sequence: Stages and Implications for Interventions

How are impulses managed?

9. by self control with no conscious deliberation necessary?

8. by conscious deliberation about actions based on personal values?

Needs:
- *to review and evaluate personal choices

7. by conscious deliberation about actions based on other's needs and desires?

Needs:
- *practice in means-end problem solving
- *practice in determining options
- *values clarification

6. by anticipated long-term rewards or punishments from another?

Needs:
- *consistant and predictable reinforcement for delay of impulses and use of judgments
- *practice in cause-effect thinking

5. by anticipated short-term rewards or punishments from another—not present?

Needs:
- *mental rehearsal of potential reactions and behaviors
- *practice applying strategies
- *stimulation of internal cueing

4. by anticipated short-term rewards or punishments from another—present?

Needs:
- *consistant and predictable reinforcement
- *cause and effect interpretations
- *to learn self-talk

3. by verbal or non-verbal cue from another?

Needs:
- *limits *posed* by others
- *"modeled" self-talk

2. by verbal or non-verbal directive from another?

Needs:
- *consistant rules
- *limits *imposed* by others

1. by physical restraint or absence of stimuli?

Needs:
- *physical restraint
- *removal of stimuli
- *distraction or substitution

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Stage Implications: The Interventions

In order for an intervention to be developmentally prescriptive for students at stage one, the lowest stage in the development of impulse management, it must provide the necessary external control. Physical restraint must be available when needed. The environment must be regulated so that stimulation is reduced for the students.

The phrase "child-proofing the environment" is sometimes used by parents to indicate that most every breakable item has been removed from the child's reach. This technique is most often tried when the child has reached the mobile, exploratory age and seems to be unable to resist manipulating each and every trinket and knickknack in the house. Caution should be taken lest we too quickly agree with a generalized use of this technique, however. If the environment is so regulated that it becomes sterile and undemanding, can it provide experiences that facilitate development of impulse control? The presence and consistency of adults in our environment helps us restrain our impulses when necessary, redirect them when necessary and provide for the beginning of mental organization of our experiences. It may at times seem easier to child-proof the environment than to follow toddlers from one table to the next, restraining their hands. Children must also hear verbal directives that go with physical restraints and redirections if they are to begin organizing their own experiences. If developmental interventions are to be used at this level, the student-adult ratio must allow for much direct intervention.

At stages two, three and four, developmental interventions should incorporate behavior modification technologies. The central theme to interventions at these stages is consistency and predictability of responses. An intervention cannot be prescriptive for students at these stages unless there is follow-through and predictable reinforcement. Even at these low stages, however, the progression away from totally externally controlled procedures is noticeable.

At stage two, limits need to be imposed by adults in the environment. Energy is focused on helping the developing student organize experiences and develop associations between behaviors and the reactions of others. These associations will hopefully lead to the process of anticipation and with that, delay of gratification. At this level, students need to understand rules and expectations. Rules and expectations must be specifically stated for them to maintain control over their impulses. To meet the degree of consistency and predictability necessary at this level, a low student-adult ratio is implied.

Meichenbaum (1976) described the five steps in self-talk instruction as follows:

1) Cognitive modeling—adult performs the task while self-talking
2) Overt, external guidance—child performs the task and repeats the self-talk that was modeled
3) Overt self-guidance — child performs while self-instructing
4) Faded, overt self-guidance—child whispers self-talk
5) Covert self-instruction—child performs the task while using only private speech (p.227).

Developmental interventions for students at stage three include the beginning step of this self-talk teaching process: the adult models the process. As early as stage three in the development of impulse management there is a recognition of the role of cognition. The process of attending to self-talk begins. It is also important to note that while the more traditional behavioral approaches were most prescriptive for stage two, and are certainly still required at stage three, the approach of the cognitive behaviorists seems to address stage three students' needs more precisely.

At stage three, limits are posed by adults. There is a fine distinction between "imposed" and "posed." The first reflects the directive quality of interactions; the latter reflects a reminder—a suggestive, less direct approach by the adults. At stage three, the process of self-talk should also be modeled by the adult. This is an opportunity to indirectly begin teaching self-talk by drawing the student's attention to it.

Empirical studies show that cognitive modeling alone is not as effective as combining it with teaching self-instruction. Among the authors who have addressed this issue is Debus (1970). The implications for programs at the fourth stage of impulse management call for teaching self-control. Additionally, students need to begin hearing interpretations of cause and effect. They need assistance in connecting the behaviors they produce with the reactions they receive from others. Such interpretations assist the students in learning to anticipate outcomes.

Rules and expectations must be specifically stated for students to control their impulses.

Skillful teachers will take the central concepts and modify them for their own students' age and interest levels.

Comp, Blom, Hebert and van Doorninck (1977) have described a curriculum training program for use with young children. Titled *Think Aloud*, it is produced by Research Press. The program involves "modeling and verbalization of cognitive activity to foster use of verbal mediation skills in dealing with both cognitive and interpersonal problems" (p.157). This commercially available program is potentially helpful in assisting teachers who work with students at levels three and four.

The "Life-Space Interview," another technique helpful at these levels, is a valuable tool for clinicians as well as teachers. It is described by many authors. Among these are Redl (1959) and Morse (1976). There are five general steps in applying this interview technique: 1) defining the child's perceptions of the nature of the crisis-testing for the spread and depth of the problem; 2) draining off the affect associated with the crisis; 3) accepting the perceptions of the student and acknowledging their importance in understanding the conflict; 4) evaluating the student's ability to resolve the problem and establish alternative solutions; and 5) resolution of the crisis. For students at levels three and four, the first three parts of the life-space interview process seem most developmentally prescriptive: helping the student define a problem interaction—the connections between impulses/behaviors and adult responses; draining off overwhelming affect, and accepting the student's feelings.

Another program that may prove helpful for students exhibiting behaviors at levels three and four is called A Mental Health Program for Preschool (and Kindergarten) Children. It was designed by Shure and Spivak (1975 a) to assist students in identifying a problem, looking at behavior, and understanding cause and effect relationships. A difficulty with curricular materials that assist the teacher at these levels in teaching cause/effect relationships and self-talk, is that most are designed for students at an age when these skills are typically developed. For practitioners who work with behaviorally disordered students, this is a dilemma. While students' impulse development may reflect a low level, their interest levels and ages may be at higher levels. Skillful teachers will take the central concepts of these materials and modify them to their own students' age and interest levels.

At stage five, developmental interventions need to encourage students to mentally rehearse self-instruction techniques, practice the cause and effect predictions they are learning to make, and practice applying new behavioral strategies. At this level, self-talk is becoming more internal, as is cause-effect thinking. The ability to anticipate is beginning to affect behaviors. The student is able to delay gratifications for short periods. Previously cited materials can be helpful if they are used in a less directive, more encouraging manner. The goal here is to help the student assume an increasing degree of control over his or her impulses.

Glasser's (1969) Reality Therapy Approach has prescriptive value at this stage. Another approach that helps students develop and practice new strategies of behavioral control is described by Fagen, Long and Stevens (1975). In the authors' words:

> The self-control curriculum seeks to develop skills which are necessary for confronting, making and acting upon difficult decisions. By facilitating practice and reinforcement of the eight identified processes for self-control, it is expected that growth will occur in one's capacity to direct and regulate personal action flexibly and realistically in a given situation (p.75).

Note that two of the eight processes these authors associate with self-control parallel markers described as part of the IBP model, "Inhibition and Delay" and "Anticipating Consequences." At stage five, a shift is beginning to occur in program implications. There is a shift from control as a compliance function to self-control as a personal, facilitating function. The beginnings of the Origin orientation and the concept of self-control as a psychological function may be recognized in the suggested interventions at this stage.

Three more specific instructional assists are identified here. Parts of each, as well as fuller use of the previously identified materials, may be helpful in meeting the needs of level five students. The materials are entitled, Developing Self Discipline, Consequences Cards, and Interpersonal Cognitive Problem Solving Curriculum.

A note of interest seems appropriate here before moving to the more mature stage six. The literature regarding self-talk is surprisingly devoid of discussions on the different content that might be taught to children as they learn to self-talk. There is an entire range of messages that can be included in self-talk; each reflects a different position on a hierarchy from external to internal control. For instance, I may self-instruct by saying, "Don't do that;" "Don't do that because when I do. . . .will happen;" "Don't do that because Mom wants me not to;" "Don't do that because I feel terrible when I do;" or "Don't do that because I don't want to and I can decide for myself" and so on. These are different self-messages. Each reflects a very different level of understanding and response. As one views the implications for these stages in the development of impulse control, it is important to remember that the actual intervention, the nature of the intervention message and the interpersonal relationship are important in any decision about its prescriptiveness. In these considerations, and most clearly as we view implications from stage five upward, we see the concerns and techniques of psychoeducators come into focus. The techniques most often associated with psychoeducational programs become the most prescriptive technologies at this point in the developmental sequence.

Developmental interventions for stages six, seven, eight and nine are centered on identification of feelings and values, and exercise of personal choice. The cognitive skills enriched at these stages are cause-effect thinking, means-ends thinking and evaluation of choices. At this level, the environment and the adults in it need to reinforce students' delay of impulses, their process of determining options and their "thinking-through" situations and problems. The exercise of self-control is fostered by encouraging the student to function in an increasingly Origin role, by creating opportunities for self-expression, self-assertion, personal judgments and actions based on values.

Again, various curricular programs in part or whole may be helpful to teachers for these stages. They include:

1. DUSO-Developing Understanding of Self and Others; American Guidance Services, Inc.
2. Interpersonal Cognitive Problem Solving Curriculum; Shure, M. B.; and Spivack, G.
3. Learning to Cope; January Productions
4. Lifeline; Argus Communications
5. Little Things that Count; Eye Gate Media and Eye Gate House, Inc.
6. Mixing In; Scholastic Magazine, Inc./Kindle
7. Transition; American Guidance Service, Inc.
8. Values in Sweet Pickles; BFA Educational Media
9. Your Emotions, The Coping Process; Sunburst Communications

Teachers should be cautioned in the wholesale use of prepared curricular materials to meet the developmental needs of a student. The response to the student, be it through materials, the teacher or the environment, needs to match the level of development in order for prescription to occur. For example, "Cognitive rationales can increase children's self-control, but only if the content of the rationale is consistent with what the child can comprehend (as a function of developmental level)" (Pressley, 1979, p.347).

Teachers should be the scientists/artists who select and use pieces of available materials to create prescriptive, appropriate program effects, which are then called developmental interventions.

Teachers should be the scientists/artists who use pieces of available materials to create developmental interventions.

Summary

Tall Tree, Small Tree is a children's book written by Mabel Watts. Throughout the book, the author asks a question and then responds to it: "What's the best kind of tree? It all depends on who you are. And where you are. And what sort of tree you need." The readers discover that an apple tree is good for climbing and can provide food if you are hungry; whereas, to a horse, a cottonwood provides shade for rest and a strong trunk for scratching, etc. By the last page, when the question is asked, the multiplicity of correct answers is obvious to the reader.

If we have been guilty in our teaching of asking the question, "What's the best kind of intervention for behaviorally disordered students?" we need to be aware of the multiplicity of correct answers here, too. Each intervention is dependent on the developmental need of the student. I have attempted to show what makes an intervention a developmental intervention. The orientation of developmental interventionists has been discussed. Several developmentally based programs were briefly reviewed. One model for better understanding student development, for synthesizing various theories and for integrating technologies was discussed—the IBP model. The development of the ability to manage impulses was discussed in detail. The theoretical and empirical basis for the model of impulse management was provided. Finally, specific developmental interventions were identified for each of the stages in the development of impulse control.

There is great excitement for practitioners using developmental theory. In order to gain the necessary assessment information, they are drawn into intense explorations with students. They begin to see the process of development and different experiences through the developing perceptions of the student. In designing prescriptive developmental interventions, the usefulness of many different technologies becomes clear. For teachers of behaviorally disordered students, such an orientation emphasizes normal development rather than pathology, and allows a new kind of partnership between the student and the adult, one based on growth and achievement rather than on a deficit orientation.

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Cognitive Approaches to Social Competence with Behaviorally Disordered Youth

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Social incompetence appears to be a major problem shared by mildly handicapped students labeled behaviorally disordered (Hallahan and Kauffman, 1978), mentally retarded (Greenspan, 1979), and learning disabled (Bryan and Bryan, 1977). Social competence encompasses a wide area of cognitive and behavioral skills, but most generally refers to a person's effective participation in the activities of his or her social setting. The competent individual actively defines what he or she wants and possesses the skills to actualize those goals in specific social situations (Weinstein, 1969). Experts agree that social competence is something more than general intelligence; it includes intrapersonal sensitivity, appreciation of varied perspectives and problem-solving skills (Anderson and Messick, 1974). More and more attention is being paid to cognitive factors in social competence (Meichenbaum, Butler and Gruson, 1981).

The study of social competence has been plagued by confusion in its definition and measurement (Simeonsson, 1979). Research has been conducted under a variety of models, each of which has excluded important aspects of socially competent behavior (Meichenbaum et al., 1981).

This chapter focuses on cognitive approaches that assist in the analysis and remediation of socially inappropriate behavior. Although there are other approaches to changing behavior, cognitive approaches, taken as a whole, are useful in integrating disparate models, and provide a unified direction to the study of social competence. Two major types of interventions based on cognitive approaches serve to increase metacognitive skills (planning, checking, awareness, etc.) and are important to the conceptualization, study and remediation of socially competent behavior. Those major types of intervention techniques are from a cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive perspective.

This chapter discusses current theory and research on cognitive approaches, then addresses assessment and intervention with special attention to methods developed from both cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive perspectives. Finally, generalization and maintenance following intervention will be discussed.

Research and Theory on Cognitive Approaches to Social Competence

Problems in social competence are a major defining characteristic of behaviorally disordered and other groups of mildly handicapped children. Much of the impetus for the increased interest in the study of social competence has come from the movement toward mainstreaming exceptional children in regular classrooms. Two approaches with a cognitive emphasis are the social-cognitive/developmental perspective and the cognitive-behavioral perspective. Although these represent distinct traditions in the conceptualization and remediation of socially competent behavior, they share a common emphasis on cognitive variables.

A Cognitive-Behavioral Approach to Social Competence

One important set of tools in training "social skills" in exceptional children is derived from an applied behavior analysis perspective (Hersen and Barlow, 1977). Although not a comprehensive theoretical framework for explaining the development of socially competent behavior, the procedures derived from this perspective have proven invaluable to practitioners charged with remediating maladaptive social behaviors. In general, research in this area has focused on empirically demonstrating the relationship between specific environmental manipulations and changes in the levels of specifically defined observable, quantifiable behaviors (see, for example, Lovaas and Bucher, 1974). The implicit theoretical basis for this approach is that social competence consists of specific, discrete, observable and measurable learned behaviors that are controlled by environmental events. In general, interventions derived from this perspective include the use of external controls, manipulating specific environmental stimuli and carefully quantifying resulting changes in target behaviors (Thompson and Grabowski, 1972).

In the last 10 years, a shift has taken place in treatment philosophies for the behaviorally disordered. Most recently, applied behavior analysts or "behavior modifiers" have merged with more cognitive-based researchers and practitioners. Many cognitive psychologists have begun to accept the importance of

Problem-solving skills comprise social competence to the extent that a person can plan his or her actions, weigh the pros and cons, and consider their effects on others.

empirical evaluation, while many behavioral psychologists, who once considered only overt behaviors, have begun to view cognition as important in the behavior change process (Kendall and Hollon, 1979). A very important reason for this merger is the failure of many behavioral procedures to produce durable, generalizable changes in academically relevant behaviors (Wahler, Berland and Coe, 1979). This point will be discussed in more detail in the section on generalization.

Many current theorists espouse a cognitive-behavioral model, aligning themselves somewhere between traditional cognitive and behavioral orientations to treatment (Bandura, 1969, 1978; Mahoney, 1974, 1977; Meichenbaum, 1977; Mischel, 1973). The amalgam of the two approaches has spawned considerable research in cognitive-behavior modification in treating behavioral disorders. Kendall and Hollon (1979) described a cognitive-behavioral intervention to be a "purposeful attempt to preserve the demonstrated efficiencies of behavior modification within a less doctrinaire context and to incorporate the cognitive activities of the client in efforts to produce a therapeutic change." (p. 1)

While a number of behaviorists (Wolpe, 1978; Deitz, 1978) continue to denigrate the role of these cognitive activities in behavioral change, Kendall and Hollon (1979) identified four relatively independent streams of influence that led to the development of cognitive behavior modification. These influence streams are: (1) the assumption by some (Ullman, 1970) that cognitions are subject to the same laws of learning as overt behaviors; (2) the assertion (Ellis, 1962) that attitudes, beliefs, expectancies, attributions and other cognitive activities are central to understanding, producing and predicting both psychopathological behavior and the effects of treatment on the behavior; (3) the movement by some experimental learning theorists (Bandura, 1977; Kanfer, 1970) to investigate covert and overt behavior; and (4) the efforts by a number of researchers and clinicians to combine behavioral contingency management procedures with cognitive treatment strategies (Lovitt and Curtiss, 1969).

Meichenbaum et al. (1981) proposed a useful model of social competence based on a cognitive-behavior modification paradigm that includes three interdependent components: overt behaviors, cognitive processes and cognitive structures. Overt behaviors are directly observable verbal and nonverbal behaviors occurring in an interpersonal context. Cognitive processes are the thoughts and images that precede, accompany and follow these overt behaviors, as well as the thinking skills and information processing styles used by individuals in social situations. Cognitive structures refer to the meaning systems individuals use to give motivation, direction and organization to thought and behavior in a social context.

Similar to Bandura's (1978) theory of reciprocal determinism and Mischel's (1973) cognitive social learning theory, Meichenbaum et al.'s model contends that a focus on overt behaviors per se is necessary but not sufficient in studying social competence. The role of the individual's cognitions (processes and structures) must also be taken into account. Shure (1981) stated that, because of the dramatic effect of thinking on doing, social competence can be viewed only in light of how people think.

Lloyd (1980) pointed out that cognitive behavior modification (CBM) is often composed of the following characteristics. First, the subjects themselves, rather than external agents, are the primary change agents. (If this is not the case at the beginning of the training, it is a final goal of intervention.) Second, verbalization (often at first overt and later covert) is a primary component. Third, subjects are often taught to identify and use a series of steps (or strategies) to solve a problem. Fourth, modeling has often been used as an instructional procedure. Finally, a great deal of the CBM literature focuses on helping students gain self-control.

The central aspect of verbal processes in CBM can be attributed to the theoretical framework laid down by the Russian psychologists Vygotsky (1962) and Luria (1961), which concerns the role of language in regulating behavior. These theoreticians proposed that a child gains eventual regulation over his or her behavior by using covert intrapersonal speech. The child is first exposed to the interpersonal instructions and verbalizations of others, for example in mutual problem solving, and these later become abbreviated and internalized. Although this model has been criticized (Bloor, 1977), it has proven valuable in formulating training programs for teaching children self-control behaviors (Meichenbaum, 1978).

Although not a comprehensive and definitive review, this discussion of cognitive-behavioral approaches should provide the unfamiliar reader with a general orientation to the many specific

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A competent memorizer knows from past experience that tasks present unique demands requiring a tailored strategy. As an individual becomes more expert at memory tasks, interactions become more sophisticated.

It is not that subjects are incapable of performing memory tasks. They possess the required strategies, but fail to act strategically with the information.

approaches falling under the cognitive-behavioral label. The second cognitively based approach we will discuss is called social-cognitive. Although there are interesting areas of overlap between the two frameworks, there are important differences as well.

A Social-Cognitive Approach to Social Competence

There has been a substantial rise in attention devoted to social competence in children, especially by developmental psychologists. The term preferred by many investigators in this area is social cognition. In general, social cognition refers to the ability to understand and deal effectively with social and interpersonal objects and events (Greenspan, 1979).

From a cognitive developmental perspective, social competence to some extent depends on cognition about the social world; that is, about others and relationships with or between others. In some domains social-cognitive developmental sequences have been described (e.g., moral judgment, role taking, referential communication), and a variety of methods have been employed in attempts to facilitate development in each domain. Several reviews are available to provide a representative picture of both the quantity and diversity of studies from this perspective (Chandler, 1977; Flavell, 1974; Looft, 1972; Shantz, 1975; Youniss, 1975). In addition, at least two reviews have focused specifically on exceptional children (Greenspan, 1978; Simeonsson, 1979).

Most of the research in this tradition follows a neo-Piagetian framework. That is, the concepts of egocentrism and decentration are central to this line of inquiry. Greenspan's model of social intelligence (1979) is indicative of the composite skills or traits that are the focus of these studies. They include role taking, social inference, social comprehension, moral judgment, psychological insight, referential communication skills and social problem solving. Affleck (1977) has provided a neo-Piagetian model for developing interpersonal competency in mentally retarded children.

Although there are many areas to consider when examining a social-cognitive perspective to social competence, one especially important area is social problem solving.

Social Problem Solving. Greenspan (1979) defined social problem solving as the ability to deal effectively with situations in which there is a divergence of needs between the actor and one or more people. For most people, such situations occur many times during a day in interpersonal contacts. How people go about handling problems with others determines in part their emotional well-being and level of social competence (Spivack, Platt and Shure, 1976).

The success a person has in resolving interpersonal problems is due to a complexity of interrelated factors (Spivack et al, 1976). To fully understand the social problem-solving process, it is first necessary to investigate *how* people think through a problematic situation and select their course of action. This investigation is important because of the dramatic effect thinking has on doing (Shure, 1981).

One operationalization of this cognitive approach is found in the interpersonal problem-solving program developed by Spivack, Shure and colleagues (1974, 1976). Their program is based on the proposition that a series of interpersonal cognitive problem solving (ICPS) skills mediate the thinking process a person engages in when confronted with a social problem. The skills are:

(a) sensitivity to interpersonal problem situations,
(b) generation of alternative solutions (alternative thinking),
(c) tendency to link cause and effect spontaneously (causal thinking),
(d) readiness to view the consequences of one's actions (consequential thinking),
(e) ability to conceptualize step-by-step means for reaching specific goals (means-end thinking), and
(f) the ability to view situations from the perspective of other involved individuals (perspective taking).

Several interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills are similar to variables cited by other investigators as important cognitive skills for social competence. Spivack and Shure's (1974) concept of sensitivity is similar to Flavell and Wellman's (1977) concept of sensitivity as a type of metacognition. Perspective taking is similar to the concept of role taking as discussed by cognitive-developmentalists (Chandler, 1977; Greenspan, 1979). From this perspective, at least one aspect of socially incompetent behavior is due to inadequate role-taking abilities. Although no precise data are available about the

particular ages at which role-taking skills emerge, theoretically age seven is when egocentrism begins to decline and role-taking abilities increase (Chandler, 1977).

The Spivack and Shure program isn't the only model designed to investigate the social problem solving process. D'Zurrilla and Goldfried (1971) defined *problem solving* as:

> a behavioral process, whether overt or cognitive in nature, which (a) makes available a variety of potentially effective response alternatives for dealing with the problematic situation, and (b) increases the probability of selecting the most effective response from among these various alternatives. (p. 108)

They conceptualized a five-step problem-solving model: (a) general orientation, (b) problem definition and formulation, (c) generation of alternatives, (d) decision making, and (e) verification. In the general orientation phase, individuals recognize that problems occur in normal living, realize they can cope with problems, realize when problems occur, and inhibit impulsive response. In problem definition and formulation, individuals translate abstract terms into concrete examples. The generation-of-alternatives phase is based on "brainstorming" techniques that encourage the production of many solutions to a problem. In the decision-making phase, individuals evaluate alternatives in terms of their outcome and decide on the course of action. The last phase, verification, allows for evaluating the success of the overall process.

The cognitive processes involved in social problem solving have been highly related to the behavioral adjustment of preschoolers, school-age children and adolescents (Spivack, Platt and Shure, 1976); juvenile delinquents (Little and Kendall, 1979); adolescent psychiatric patients (Platt, Altman and Altman, Note 1); youthful incarcerated heroin addicts (Platt, Scura and Hannon, 1973); and adult psychiatric patients (Platt and Spivack, 1972). Shure (1981) considered problem-solving skills as comprising social competence to the extent that a person can plan his or her actions, weigh the pros and cons of these actions and consider effects of actions on others.

Interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills differ from cognitive processes typically measured by intellectual tests (Allen, Chinsky, Larcen, Lochman and Selingers, 1976; Spivack et al., 1976). There is no evidence that interpersonal (social) problem-solving skills involve the same cognitive structures as impersonal (intellectual) problem-solving skills (Little and Kendall, 1979). Spivack et al. (1976) found low correlations between interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills and measures of general intelligence, originality of thinking, or test verbal behavior.

A commonality in the approaches is the importance placed on critical skills such as planning, checking and other self-monitoring skills designed to increase awareness in regulating one's behavior. These skills are useful in a broad range of problem-solving situations, such as when one is attempting to decide on a course of action in a social situation. Intriguingly, these skills appear to be major components of what some researchers have termed metacognition. A general discussion of metacognition illustrates the close relationship of these two approaches to social competence and the broader area of metacognition, which plays an important part in social competence.

The Role of Metacognition in the Regulation of Behavior

Metacognition has been described by Flavell (1976) as:

> . . .one's knowledge concerning one's cognitive processes and products or anything related to them, e.g. the learning-relevant properties of information or data. For example, I am engaging in metacognition (metamemory, metalearning, metaattention, metalanguage, or whatever) if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should double-check C before accepting it as a fact; if it occurs to me that I had better scrutinize each and every alternative in any multiple-choice type task situation before deciding which is the best one; if I become aware that I had better make a note of D because I might forget it; if I have it right. . . .Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective. (p. 232)

If students are aware of the options available to them, but continue to behave in socially inappropriate ways, then the issue becomes one of can't vs. won't.

Experimental tasks typically are structured, rigid and contrived, while real-world tasks are unstructured and flexible, and represent natural performance.

Researchers have investigated the role metacognition plays in memory (Brown, 1975; Flavell and Wellman, 1977), attention (Miller and Bigi, 1979), problem solving (Brown, 1978; Flavell, 1976), and social cognition (Flavell, 1981b). Of interest here are the implications of examining metacognition in relation to social behavior. Some of the work on metacognition and memory performance of young children exemplifies how this theoretical notion can be applied to looking at and potentially improving social behavior. We will look at memory, because it is the domain in which the greatest amount of research has been carried out.

Metamemory. Flavell and Wellman (1977) have defined *metamemory* as an individual's knowledge of anything germane to information storage and retrieval, or one's knowledge about one's own memory processes. They classified the major types of metamemory an individual acquires as metacognitive sensitivity, awareness of variables that affect cognition, and awareness of interactions between variables.

Sensitivity. Refers to the sense one has for when the situation he or she is in calls for efforts of voluntary, intentional remembering. Certain situations call for employment of specialized cognitive activities or memory strategies. The sensitivity for knowing when and how to engage in a memory strategy appears to develop with age and is necessary for an accurate match of strategy to situation.

The second major type of metamemory is labeled awareness of *variables*. This refers to the knowledge of what factors or variables act in what ways to affect an individual's performance on a memory problem. Flavell and Wellman distinguished three categories of such variables: person, task and strategy. Person variables are all things an individual could learn about his or her own memory processes or products. Examples include knowing that you are better at remembering faces than names, or knowing that something you are trying to memorize still needs more study. Task variables include knowledge of task factors that affect the difficulty of a memory problem. For example, it is easier to remember related words than unrelated words, or it is easier to recognize information than to recall it. Strategy variables refer to knowledge of the activities one can voluntarily do to help one's memory system achieve a goal. Examples of strategy variables include repeating a telephone number over and over before dialing, or making up a sentence to remember items on a list such as "Every Good Boy Does Fine" to remember E, G, B, D and F as the names of note lines in the treble clef.

The third type of metacognition in Flavell and Wellman's model is the *interactions* of these three variables, as well as metacognitive knowledge about each individually. For instance, a competent memorizer knows that he or she is better at performing some strategies than others (person *x* strategy) or that there is a certain strategy that often is more effective for a particular task (strategy *x* task). The person also knows from past experience that there are tasks that present unique demands requiring an especially tailored strategy (person *x* task *x* strategy). As an individual becomes more expert at memory tasks, the interaction of variables becomes more sophisticated.

Important findings have also emerged from metamemory research. Investigators such as Brown and Deloache (1978), Campione, Nitsch, Bray and Brown (Note 2), and Flavell (1976) suggest that a central aspect of inadequate performance on memory tasks is failure to use "strategies" and lack of ability to formulate and use plans. This failure to employ mnemonic strategies appears to be the main difference between developmentally young and mature memorizers and appears to develop with age.

Several investigations suggest that the spontaneous self-instruction that signals when to use a strategy is developmental and characteristic of sophisticated problem solvers. This type of self-instruction is similar to Flavell and Wellman's (1977) sensitivity type of metacognition. Masur, McIntyre and Flavell (1973) found that when studying material on which they had been tested previously, seven-year-olds did not study missed items in preference to the study of successfully retrieved items. Siegler and Liebert (1975) found that significantly fewer 10-year-olds than 13-year-olds elected to engage in a strategy to aid memory, suggesting that the younger children did not recognize the need or utility of doing so. Flavell (1970) coined the term *production deficiency* to describe a child's failure to use a memorization strategy spontaneously when the

situation called for it, even though he or she could and would use that strategy effectively if directed to do so by somone else. Younger children appear to have a more pervasive "production deficiency" in that they do not deliberately use or plan to use strategies in situations where more mature individuals are prone to do so (Flavell and Wellman, 1977).

Whether the children in these studies were capable of strategic behavior or not, it appears they were deficient in knowing *when* to employ strategies. Training studies have demonstrated that when retarded persons are trained in strategy use, they become as proficient at memory tasks as their normal counterparts (Brown, Campione, Bray and Wilcox, 1973; Butterfield, Wambold and Belmont, 1973). However, improved performance has often been found to be situation-specific and not transferable (Campione et al., 1980). When the memory task changes, students do not use strategies to perform the task. This may indicate a deficiency in metacognition, that is, a lack of knowing *when* to use a strategy, rather than a deficiency in strategic behavior per se.

Kruetzer, Leonard and Flavell (1975) specifically investigated the metamemory abilities of 20 children at each of grades K, 1, 3, and 5. They found older children better able to predict their own memory abilities (personal variables). This finding supports similar work that indicates that older children are better able to predict their own memory performance (Flavell, Friedrichs and Hoyt, 1970; Flavell and Wellman, 1977). Kreutzer et al. (1975) also found that older children were more likely to recognize the effects of task difficulty such as list length and list versus text (task variables). Moynahan (1973) came to the same conclusion after finding that older groups predicted that categorized sets were easier to recall than unrelated items.

Kreutzer et al. (1975) investigated strategy variables by presenting subjects with a problem and asking them to think of all the things they could do to solve the problem. Older children could think of more retrieval strategies than younger ones, and generally showed a greater sense of planfulness in their answers. *Planful* refers to their ability to form and maintain a clear image of the mnemonic goal and to try to create effective, specific means of attaining the goal (Flavell, 1970). The researchers also found that "in-the-world" strategies were proposed often than "in-the-child" strategies by children of all ages. This means that the memory strategies used were external types, such as writing notes or rearranging objects, as opposed to internal types, such as producing associations between known and unknown information.

Previous studies on metamemory suggest that handicapped and developmentally young children exhibit memory deficiencies, at least in part, because of metacognitive deficits. It is not that these subjects are incapable of performing appropriately on memory tasks, but their behavior suggests that they simply are unaware of critical aspects of the task and of themselves as active memorizers. That is, they possess the required strategies but fail to act *strategically* with the information.

In the same way problems in metacognition have been proposed to account for deficits in memory performance of some children, it may be hypothesized that a similar problem exists with children who exhibit behavior problems.

Metacognitive Aspects of Social Behavior

Flavell (1981a) states that most social cognition seems intrinsically metacognitive. He suggests that monitoring one's social cognition may be a promising new subject for developmental research. Similarities between metacognitive knowledge in experimental memory tasks and real-world social problem-solving situations justify applying experimental findings to the study of social behavior from this perspective. Experimental memory tasks and social cognitive tasks both require metacognitive knowledge of when and how to engage in strategies to facilitate accurate performance. Both types of tasks require the types of metacognitive knowledge that Flavell and Wellman (1977) described: (a) metacognitive sensitivity, (b) awareness of person, task and strategy variables, and (c) awareness of interaction between variables.

There is some support for the concept of the non-specificity of metacognition to any particular behavioral or cognitive domain. Yussen and Bird (1979) found that metacognitive awareness of variables related to performance in the cognitive domains of memory, communication and attention was remarkably similar for children at two developmental levels.

Self-evaluation is a cue for determining the allowable self-reinforcement or self-punishment. It is the vital middle link in the self-regulation process.

In training ICPS skills, the intent is to develop effective thinking processes in children, rather than adult-valued appropriate thinking content.

Although experimental tasks and real-world social problem-solving tasks are similar, they are not equivalent. Usually, goals for performing experimental tasks are defined externally, while goal definition for a real-world task is part of the task itself and determined by the subject. Experimental tasks typically are structured, rigid and contrived, while real-world tasks are unstructured and flexible, and represent natural performance. It's necessary to examine similarities and differences of the two types of research tasks to make appropriate inferences about their results.

Metacognition is most apt to occur when one engages in conscious cognition (Flavell, 1981a). Conscious cognition occurs when demands are implicit as well as explicit, when one has to behave in new and unaccustomed ways, or when the outcome is important. Each type of metacognitive knowledge is necessary for adequately performing tasks requiring cognitive action, independent of specific task characteristics.

In light of these considerations, we may hypothesize that a similar lack of metacognitive knowledge or skill in social behavior may accompany inadequate social performance. It can be argued that, like incompetent memorizers, students who are socially incompetent do not spontaneously use cognitive strategies when needed and are not planful in the strategies they do employ. They may have appropriate strategies available, but do not know *how* and *when* to use them; that is, they have a deficiency in metacognition.

Relationship of Cognitive Approaches to Social Competence and Metacognition

Cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive (especially social problem solving) approaches to social competence suggest treatment programs to advance metacognitive skills, such as awareness of social behavior and awareness of oneself as a social behaver.

In the case of cognitive behavioral approaches, especially those such as cognitive behavior modification, it is relatively easy to see how treatment would increase metacognitive-like awareness. For example, self-recording and self-monitoring force students to examine their behavior in context. Similarly, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement force students to examine the consequences of their actions in relation to changing context and activities. Overall, the emphasis on the self as the intervention agent, such as using self-speech to guide one's behavior, helps to assure that awareness of one's behaviors and their consequences are by-products of the behavior change program.

Similarly, each of the social problem-solving skills (for example the interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills identified by Spivack and Shure) enables a person to be aware of his or her own cognitions and accompanying behavior in a variety of social situations. Sensitivity to social problem situations allows a person to recognize critical aspects of a situation and predict future performance based on past performance; both are metacognitive processes. In general, decentration, which is crucial to most social cognitive skills in many domains, involves an awareness of others' behaviors in relation to oneself. Clearly, this is very similar to what others describe as metacognition.

Generating alternative solutions, viewing the consequences of one's own actions, and conceptualizing the steps required to attain goals are the metacognitive processes of planning, organizing and orchestrating cognitive events. The abilities to link cause and effect and view situations from another's perspective are based on the metacognitive processes of monitoring and checking cognitive events in relation to environmental events. In essence, cognitive approaches based on very different theoretical foundations target the same overall planning, checking and monitoring of cognitions related to social behavior. The result of successful intervention should be an individual with a heightened awareness of the factors of influencing his or her behavior in various social contexts.

Cognitively based approaches to social competence provide a framework for the study and remediation of inappropriate social behaviors. Close parallels exist between skills that are targets of cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive interventions, and intrapersonal activities characterized as metacognitive by researchers studying children's problem-solving behavior. These metacognitive skills are

important to successful problem solving in areas like memory tasks, and these same skills might be equally important for solving the social problem of knowing how to behave appropriately in different situations and contexts.

Assessment

Cognitive-Behavioral Perspective

The evaluation of social competence from a cognitive-behavioral perspective emphasizes the role of cognitions in the behavioral repertoire (Meichenbaum, 1977). This type of cognitive-functional analysis of behavior includes a careful examination of thinking processes to determine which cognitions under what circumstances are contributing to or interfacing with a specific behavior. Of interest are the cognitions that occur before, during and after a specific behavioral response. A cognitive-functional analysis involves identifying the essential cognitive components of the task in an attempt to specify the "why" of a performance deficit (Meichenbaum, 1977). The approach requires an examination of the task, noting each cognitive step, and then testing each step to determine the breakdown in relation to task performance.

The cognitive-behaviorist is also interested in behavioral changes that result from environmental manipulations. Meichenbaum describes three types of environmental manipulations: (a) modify the task; (b) modify nontask, environmental variables; and (c) modify supports given to the subjects, such as prompts or aids. By altering these variables, an evaluator can determine the conditions under which a subject can and cannot perform, specifically pinpointing the deficient aspect of the subject's behavioral repertoire. As Meichenbaum points out, a cognitive-functional analysis not only reports differences in performance but conducts the necessary detective work in pursuit of the "why."

The "detective work" is accomplished by employing any or a combination of assessment procedures: (a) clinical interviews, (b) behavioral assessments that incorporate role playing, videotaping or think-aloud techiniques, (c) projective devices that use pictures, slides, etc. and (d) psychometric tests (Meichenbaum, 1977).

The clinical interview is frequently used along with other techniques to externalize the subject's thoughts and feelings. The interview process commonly includes definitions from the clients of the nature, severity and generality of the problem behavior and the conditions surrounding its occurrence. Behavioral assessments involve the subject performing the desired behavior in a role play situation, often with the use of videotape. An interview then follows to assess the subject's reconstruction of thoughts and feelings that occurred during performance. The subject can also be asked to "think-aloud" while performing the problem behavior providing a concurrent introspective report. Pictures, slides and movies that portray problem behaviors have been used to encourage verbalizations of internal dialogues. Lastly, psychometric instruments such as rating scales and questionnaires can be used alone or in conjunction with behavioral assessments as another form of self-disclosure.

Social-Cognitive Perspective

While cognitive-behaviorists analyze cognitions functionally related to particular problem behaviors, social-cognitivists analyze developmental progress in one or more domains theorized to comprise social cognition. You may refer to Greenspan (1979) for a discussion of the domains thought to be related to social cognition. The properties of assessment are not as unified in the realm of social cognition as they are in cognitive behavior modification.

The social problem-solving model most often described in the literature is that of Spivack, Shure and colleagues (1974; 1976). They propose a series of interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills (ICPS) that comprise social problem-solving ability. A review by Little and Kendall (1979) of problem-solving studies

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Cognitive approaches are crucial to the development of a metacognitively sophisticated individual who can plan ahead, self-interrogate and engage in regulatory behavior.

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with atypical adolescent populations found these groups deficient in three areas: alternative thinking, means-end thinking and perspective-taking. Assessment techniques similar to those used in cognitive behavior modification were used in developing assessment devices for each interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skill. For example, the Preschool Interpersonal Problem-Solving (PIPS) Test was developed to assess alternative thinking ability. The measure involved presenting subjects with a series of four problem social situations through pictures and verbal descriptions. After each presentation, subjects were asked to respond with all the things a person could do to solve the problem. Scores were based on the number of discrete and relevant solutions generated for each problem.

The Means-End Problem-Solving (MEPS) Test was developed in a similar fashion as the PIPS test to measure another interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skill, means-end thinking. Subjects were given the beginning and end of a series of six socially problematic situations and asked to provide the middle to indicate "how the ending got to be that way." Scoring considered the awareness of individual steps to reach the goal, potential obstacles and passage of time (Spivack et al, 1976).

The assessment of perspective-taking developed by the interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skill group is similar to the role-taking assessment conducted by researchers and others in the social-cognitive area. This skill cuts across social-cognitive skills in general, and from a social-cognitive perspective is a very important part of socially competent behavior.

Platt, Spivack, Altman, Altman and Peizer (1974) modified a procedure previously developed by Feffer and Jahelka (1968) called the Role-Taking Test (RTT). This procedure asks subjects to make up a series of four stories based on a Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) card. After the stories were completed, the subjects retold them from the viewpoint of each of the characters. Scoring indicated the extent the stories were coordinated between versions and reflected the position of each character. Another approach involves asking a child to tell a story from a set of seven cards displaying pictures. Three cards are then removed and the subject is asked to tell the story again, this time from the view of a person who has just entered the room (Flavell, Botkin, Fry, Wright and Jarvis, 1968). Chandler (Note 3) devised yet another method using those two techniques. The subject was given a sequence of cartoons portraying a social interaction and asked to relate the story from the viewpoint of the central character and then from a late-arriving bystander.

Pespective-taking or role-taking (depending on one's orientation) is a widely researched cognitive skill. This is largely due to the belief that the ability to "decenter" or put oneself in the shoes of others (perspective-taking) may be a necessary but not sufficient prerequisite for effective social problem-solving (Spivack et al, 1976). Role-taking is important in developing cognitive skills in addition to social problem-solving (Little and Kendall, 1979).

Summary

Cognitive-behavior modification and social-cognitive orientations rely primarily on verbal self-report techniques in assessment. Both approaches focus on cognition, although cognitive-behaviorists are more concerned with specific conditions functionally related to behavior. Social-cognitivists are more concerned with measuring developmental progress along one or more social-cognitive domains thought to mediate behavior. The important link, however, is that both approaches involve, at least in part, metacognitive aspects of social behavior (i.e., how well one can monitor his or her own cognitions, planfulness, strategy use, etc.).

Earlier, it was suggested that socially incompetent students may not spontaneously employ cognitive strategies when needed (such as is the case with poor memorizers) and are not planful in the strategies they do employ. It is possible that these students have appropriate strategies available, but don't know how and when to use them, i.e., a metacognitive deficit. However, this raises the alternative possibility that, if students are, in fact, aware of these factors, but continue to behave in socially inappropriate ways, then the issue becomes one of *can't* vs. *won't*. (Howell, 1978). That is, students in the latter case may be making a conscious *choice* to behave in this fashion. This is important from an assessment perspective, since it may differentiate students who exhibit inappropriate behavior. When cognitive interventions are deemed ineffective based on such an analysis, it is important to focus on more environmental, ecologically based interventions.

Interventions

Several cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive interventions improve socially competent behavior. Although these interventions are not called "metacognitive" per se, they attempt to increase awareness of one's own behavior, as well as to increase planful and strategic behavior. It is essentially these characteristics that bring them into the metacognitive realm and make them important for our present discussion.

Cognitive-Behavioral Interventions

Many intervention strategies emanating from the cognitive behavioral perspective have the common goal of self-control, i.e., internal as opposed to external regulation of behavior. Although several of the intervention strategies focus on the role of cognitions (images and verbalizations) in behavior change and regulation, specifically self-instruction techniques, other self-control methods are often used to implement independent regulation of behavior. These include self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement.

Self-Monitoring. It is difficult to discuss self-instruction separately from other methods of self-control, since they are most often used in conjunction. Nevertheless, there are instances when modifying subjects' self-statements is the primary focus of intervention.

One early study by Meichenbaum and Goodman (1971) used a self-instructional training program involving a combination of modeling, overt and covert rehearsals, prompts, feedback and social reinforcement. Although improvement was evident on the experimental measures after a four-week follow-up assessment, the treatment effects did not generalize to the classroom.

Other "think-aloud" procedures have been used in attempts to develop self-control in impulsive and hyperactive children by teaching a "stop, look and listen" routine to promote thinking before acting (Camp and Bash, 1981; Palkes, Stewart and Freedman, 1972; Palkes, Stewart, and Kahana, 1968; Douglas, Parry, Marton and Garson 1976). Meichenbaum (1977) described in detail how self-instructional training can be implemented in various settings.

Self-Regulation. Self-regulation or self-control interventions for improving socially competent behavior can be divided into two approaches: (1) *self-maintenance* where the child uses self-control procedures to maintain behaviors initially acquired through external or teacher control and (2) *self-change* where the child is taught self-control procedures to develop new behaviors not previously in his or her repertoire (Rueda, Rutherford and Howell, 1980).

Kanfer and Karoly (1972) propose a three-stage self-regulatory process applicable in developing either self-maintenance or self-change interventions. These stages, in which individuals alter or maintain their behavior in the absence of immediate external supports, involve: (1) self-monitoring; (2) self-evaluation; and (3) self-reinforcement or self-punishment.

Self-monitoring is the process in which individuals observe and record their own behavior. Polsgrove (1979) describes an example of how the self-monitoring process might work:

> In training a child to monitor his behavior, a trainer may first select and behaviorally define a target behavior. Next, he may have the child record examples of his behavior using a wrist counter, abacus, tally card or stop-watch. The child also may maintain a graph, chart or a journal of his behavior. Self-monitoring and recording provides visual feedback of the child's progress and leads to self-evaluation (p. 118).

In several recent studies, behaviorally disordered students were taught to monitor and record their own behavior (Rutherford, Howell and Rueda, 1982). These studies examined students' ability to reliably monitor their peers' and their own general on-task behavior, and verbal, motor and passive off-task behavior in a classroom setting.

Students were trained to monitor the behavior of the trainer, other students and then themselves in the classroom context. In a separate phase, students were trained to self-monitor and self-record idiosyncratic maladaptive behaviors.

The results of both studies indicate that behaviorally disordered students can be taught to monitor and record general and idiosyncratic maladaptive behavior with a high degree of reliability.

Kanfer and Karoly's (1972) second stage in the self-regulation process is self-evaluation that involves "making a discrimination or judgment about the accuracy of. . .performance relative to a subjectively held standard or comparison criterion" (p. 209). Self-evaluation involves comparing one's behavior to an established personal or normative standard. Self-evaluation is greatly facilitated when individuals have self-

monitored data in the form of records, charts and graphs of their behavior. Self-evaluation serves as a cue for determining the degree of allowable self-reinforcement or self-punishment. It is the vital middle link in the self-regulation process.

The final stage of Kanfer and Karoly's model of self-regulation is self-reinforcement or self-punishment, where the judgment made in the self-evaluation stage acts as a stimulus for either positive self-reinforcement or self-presented aversive stimulation. For example, in the study by Rutherford, Howell and Rueda (1982), when the students contingently rewarded themselves with bonus tokens for not exceeding the predetermined number of idiosyncratic maladaptive behaviors, they were engaging in the final phase of the self-regulatory process — self-reinforcement.

Similar to self-instruction, cognitive processes involved in self-regulation guide students to monitor and later evaluate the effectiveness of their "thinking" before, during and after a behavioral act.

The literature on the efficiency of self-regulatory techniques holds promise for behaviorally disordered students (Rueda, Rutherford and Howell, 1980). However, like self-instruction, questions continue to exist concerning generalization and maintenance effects.

Meichenbaum and Asarnow (1979) suggest that teachers incorporate cognitive-behavioral technology in their curricula, taking advantage of the many opportunities in the day to promote cognitions that facilitate social competence. Saturating the classroom environment with visual reminders to apply cognitive skills enhances sensitivity to problematic situations. Once problems are identified, visual reminders also help initiate the process of generating planful strategies to solve the problems. Pictures, videotapes, cartoon books and other types of media are effective tools. Academic tasks as well as social tasks can be organized and presented in a way that the child's job is to identify the problem to be solved. The intent is to design a curriculum that inherently depends on the use of specific cognitive skills.

Social Cognitive Interventions

A variety of separate skills or domains might be included under the heading of social-cognitive interventions. There have been several attempts to train children in these skills, especially in role-taking and referential communication (Greenspan, 1979; Shantz, 1975; Simeonsson, 1979). Role-taking is a skill that seems to cut across most of the domains usually included in social cognition, and has been shown to be positively correlated to social competence (Elardo, Caldwell and Webb, Note 4). Role taking activities have most often been used as a training procedure rather than as a dependent variable, however. Examples of such training programs include Allen, Chinsky, Larcen, Lochman and Selinger (1976); Platt, Spivack and Swift (1975); Sarason (1968); Sarason and Ganzer (1969, 1973). One intervention program that specifically attempted to train role taking ability found that the experimental group trained in their regular classrooms improved in role taking ability significantly (Elardo and Cooper, 1977). For a more detailed review of training programs involving role taking and other specific social cognitive skills with special attention to exceptional children, refer to Greenspan (1979), Simeonsson (1979) and Shantz (1975).

Because of the special emphasis on cognitive factors and the importance of problem solving in the social problem-solving framework, we have focused in detail on some of the interventions developed from that perspective. Although social problem solving is not the only social cognitive skill of importance, it does appear to be an important dimension of social competence.

Social Problem Solving. The training programs developed from the ICPS model are based on the assumption that as cognitive interpersonal problem-solving skills improve, improvement in overt behavior will follow (Spivack et al, 1976). In training interpersonal cognitive problem-solving skills, the focus has been to help children learn to generate different ways to solve social problems while satisfying their needs and coping with their frustrations. The intent also is to develop effective thinking *processes* in children, rather than develop adult-valued appropriate thinking *content*. A child's social competence is guided more by *how* he or she thinks than *what* he or she thinks (Shure, 1982).

All such programs incorporate real-life social situations developed for use in a variety of training settings, including school, home, hospital or clinic. By providing training experiences similar to those encountered in real life, the improved effects will be generalized across settings and maintained across time.

As an example of training procedures used to improve ICPS skills, an outline of one of the first social problem-solving programs implemented by Spivack and Shure is included (Spivack et al, 1976). The program was designed as a preventive intervention for kindergarten children. See Spivack et al, (1976), for descriptions of programs developed for third/fourth grade children, fourth/fifth grade children, hyperactive children, chronic psychiatric patients, young adult group therapy clients and mothers of young

children.

The program consists of a series of structural lessons in the form of games that a teacher directs with children. In addition, the teacher uses a general problem solving approach to handle interpersonal problems that arise during the day. The program script is composed of 35 games, followed by 12 interpersonal problem situations to help children develop alternative thinking skills, consequential thinking skills, and pairing specific solutions with consequences skills.

Formal lessons take about 20 minutes per day, for a period of three months. Material used in the lessons includes pictures, hand puppets, storybooks and toys. The major concepts delivered during the framework of lessons in the sequence they are covered during instruction and are outlined here.

Concepts	Activities
1. **Language** (same/different, not, and, or, if-then), listening, paying attention	Games
2. **Identifying emotions** (associating, sad, happy, mad with behavioral signs)	Games using pictures, discussion
3. **Multiple attributes** (awareness that there is more than one element about a person at any one time which has to be considered before taking action)	Games using pictures
4. **Information gathering** (learning ways to determine how others feel)	Teacher demonstration, games using role playing, discussion
5. **Emotional awareness** (identifying emotional reactions to particular interpersonal conflict situations)	Games using role playing, puppets, stories
6. **Additional language** concepts (why-because, might-maybe, before-after, now-later)	Games
7. **Emotional causality** (identifying variety of causes for particular emotional reactions to situations)	Games, using pictures, discussion
8. **Beginning consequences** (identifying consequences of certain acts and determining why the act may or may not be a good idea)	Games, using pictures, discussion
9. **Problem-solving** (3 parts: generating solutions, generating consequences, pairing specific solutions with consequences)	12 interpersonal problem situations presented with pictures, students dialogue problem-solving process, discussion

Although social-cognitive intervention programs are structured in a variety of ways, there is much overlap in the specific techniques used. This program should give a flavor of the types of interventions that comprise these types of training programs. (For a more extended and detailed discussion of various cognitive interventions and a review of treatment results, refer to Urbain and Kendall, 1980.) Again, although there is a differentiation between social-cognitive interventions and cognitive-behavioral interventions, there is a great deal of overlap between them. However, both types of interventions share the similarity that they focus on increasing one's awareness of his or her own behavior, especially in relation to others, and can be considered metacognitive in that respect.

Generalization and Maintenance

Although much success has been reported in training children in specific behaviors and abilities, this type of training often fails to produce generalizable changes in behavior, especially when no regard is given to the actual situational and contextual settings in which interaction will eventually occur (Wahler, Berland and Coe, 1979).

Once it is demonstrated that a training procedure has been successful and a specific skill(s) or behavior(s) learned, a primary consideration is how long and under what conditions the changes will last. The concern with examining whether changes in behavior observed in one setting also occur in other situations and settings is referred to as generalization or transfer of training. On the other hand, concern with examining whether observed changes last over time is referred to as maintenance.

Although generalization is often thought of as one entity, there are actually several factors that may effect the durability of training. In experimental terms, *external validity* refers to the extent the results of an experiment can be extended beyond the conditions of the experiment. Therefore, characteristics of the experiment (or in our case, training) that might limit the extension of the results are referred to as *threats to external validity*. Kazdin (1982) has delineated at least nine separate threats to external validity, or variables that must be taken into account in designing training programs:

a. **Generality across subjects**—Do the results extend to subjects whose characteristics differ from those included in the experiment or training?
b. **Generality across settings**—Do the results extend to other situations and contexts beyond those included in the training?
c. **Generality across response measures**—Do the results extend to behaviors not included in the training?
d. **Generality across time**—Do the results extend beyond the actual times during the day that the intervention is in effect, and to times after the intervention has been terminated (the same as maintenance)?
e. **Generality across behavior change agents**—Do the results extend to persons other than the one who conducted the training?
f. **Reactive experimental arrangements**—Are the results due to the fact that subjects are aware that they are participating in a special training program?
g. **Reactive assessment**—Are the results due to the fact that subjects are aware that they are being assessed and are therefore acting differently?
h. **Pretest sensitization**—Are the results due to the subjects' sensitization to the intervention that will follow, which may not be present with those who do not receive such sensitization?
i. **Multiple-treatment interference**—Are the results due to the fact that only some specified combination of treatments is effective or to the order of training administered?
(Kazdin, 1982, p. 82)

Although other approaches are concerned with the durability of training effects, those with an applied behavior analysis perspective have been most systematic in their efforts to demonstrate generalization and maintenance. Detailed discussions of designs and procedures related to generalization from an applied behavior analysis perspective can be found in Kazdin (1980, 1982), Marholin, Siegel and Phillips (1976), and Stokes and Baer (1977).

Cognitive Factors in Generalization and Maintenance

Researchers in the area of memory with exceptional children, especially mentally retarded children, face the same problem faced by researchers in social competence and skills training, namely the generalization and durability of training. Interestingly, investigators' works in memory research and social skills research identified essentially the same processes hypothesized as leading to the generalization of behavior change. These processes include self-awareness, the deautomatization of behaviors, and the role of strategic problem-solving processes (Belmont and Butterfield, 1977; Borokowski and Cavanaugh, 1978; Campione and Brown, 1977; Meichenbaum, 1977). More specifically, these self-regulatory routines are

comprised of component skills such as estimation of task difficulty, self-interrogation, self-testing, monitoring the use of a strategy, adjusting the strategy to task demands and incorporating implicit feedback (Meichenbaum and Asarnow, 1979). It is not difficult to compare the similarities between these skills or strategies described as characteristic of a metacognitively sophisticated individual by Meichenbaum and Asarnow, and those that are the targets of intervention in the cognitive-behavioral and social-cognitive approaches described earlier. The similarity between skills important for generalization and maintenance of behavior, and skills that are the targets of various cognitive approaches partially addresses the issue of durability of behavior changes. The role of differences in context, and the need to take this variable into account in training, however, merits further discussion.

Contrary to what many believe, academic skills and knowledge are necessary but not sufficient for achieving academic success. Mehan (1979) demonstrated that competent membership in the class-community involves knowing with whom, when and where one can speak and act, and engaging in speech and behavior appropriate for a given classroom situation. Students must not only have access to specific knowledge, but must also be able to engage appropriately in behaviors such as "getting the floor," "holding the floor," and "introducing news." Mehan and others (Cicourel, 1973; Garfinkel, 1967; Mehan and Wood, 1975) suggest that classroom procedures, like other normative rules, are tacit and often implicitly communicated. Further, not only do these normative rules change depending on class activity, but they are often different from the interactional norms found in out-of-school contexts. Therefore, it seems that a competent student would need to continously monitor and evaluate his or her own behavior. In short, as Erickson and Shultz (1977) suggest, the capacity to monitor changing contexts and one's behavior in relation to those contexts are essential features of social competence. These monitoring skills are the targets of cognitive interventions, either directly or indirectly.

This is important for generalization and maintenance because the skills and abilities that comprise general monitoring skills are not welded to any specific context or problem-solving situation, and are therefore suitable for a variety of problem situations. In addition, by reducing the artificiality sometimes associated with training procedures, and by attempting to incorporate many aspects of the "real world" into training, additional assurances of generalization will be guaranteed.

Taken as a whole, cognitive approaches appear to be crucial and central to the development of a metacognitively sophisticated individual who can plan ahead, self-interrogate and engage in some of the other behaviors characteristic of self-regulatory behavior. Cognitive approaches often target skills very similar to, if not the equivalent of, metacognitive abilities, and are therefore essential in generalizing and maintaining behavior. Although there is much overlap in the cognitive approaches, there are also important and distinguishable differences between them. However, the emphasis on *how* to think rather than on strictly *what* to think has enormous potential for the conceptualization and training of socially appropriate behaviors and social competence and should be an important part of classroom training.

Notes

1. Platt, J. Altman, N. and Altman, D. "Dimensions of Interpersonal Problem-Solving Thinking in Adolescent Psychiatric Patients." Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., May 1973.
2. Campione, J.C., Nitch, K., Bray, N. and Brown, A.L. *Improving Memory Skills in Mentally Retarded Children: Empirical Research and Strategies for Intervention.* Center for the Study of Reading, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1980, (Technical Report No. 196).
3. Chandler, M.J. "Egocentrism and Childhood Psychology: The Development and Application of Measurement Techniques." Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Minneapolis, April, 1971.
4. Elardo, P.T., Caldwell, B.M., and Webb, R. "An Examination of the Relationship between Role-Taking and Social Competence." Paper presented at the Southeastern Conference on Human Development, Nashville, Tennessee, April 1976.

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Down the Up Staircase: The Teacher as Therapist

by Polly Nichols

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Those of us who teach children termed emotionally disturbed (ED) or behaviorally disordered (BD) tend to be very uneasy about the notion of therapy. Special educators in other fields greet the word with calm. Most schools have the services of speech clinicians who provide speech therapy after making diagnoses; we clamor for the services of more physical and occupational therapists; LD teachers speak of prescriptive teaching and academic therapy. In these contexts, the fact that we are speaking straight out of the medical model (therapy comes from the Greek word for healing) scarcely seems to faze us. In our own field, however, we rarely even encounter the word. One recent text does include a chapter entitled, "Supportive Therapies" and lists them as writing therapy, bibliotherapy, poetry therapy, dance therapy, art therapy, drama therapy, music therapy, the computer and the telephone (Phillips, 1981); psychotherapy is alluded to but not discussed. In most texts that even list the word in their indexes, psychotherapy is pigeon-holed and dismissed in one to three paragraphs (Kauffman, 1981, Paul and Epanchin, 1982). Whatever we label our individual pigeon-holes — "psychodynamics," "mumbo-jumbo," "truth," "psychiatry," "awesome" or "irrelevant" — we know it is somebody else's concern. What the word *psychotherapy* means at heart is *healing* the *breath, spirit, soul,* or *mind*. Surely those are the kinds of things we had in mind when we set out to teach our children.

Premises

The premises of this paper are:

1. By excluding what we believe to be out of our purview, i.e. counseling and psychotherapeutic interventions, we limit our potential as child helpers.

2. *Psychoeducation* has been redefined in current psychological theory and practice and now has much to contribute to and gain from educational technology.

3. Teachers can go beyond the manipulation of the classroom environment to foster children's academic, affective and social growth. They can intentionally teach children new thoughts, feelings and behaviors.

4. Psychologists and educators together prepare materials and training opportunities for ED/BD teachers so that we will feel competent and responsible to incorporate intentional psychological instruction as the central feature of our classrooms.

Theory-Research

Psychotherapy — Off Limits?

To put ourselves in a theoretical framework that allows us to do ourselves and our students some new kind of good, I believe we will have to pull this word out of whatever pigeon-hole we have filed it in and let it see the light of day. It is not a great word. Just say the prefix "*psycho*" and dread associations flash by — crazed, "psychopathic," cartoons of neurotic people on couches or pictures of psychotic ones in snake pits, a famous horror movie — clearly not for us.

Perhaps because it shares a prefix with psychoanalysis and psychiatry, psychotherapy is frequently put into those slots by educators. Once lodged there, it *is* clearly off limits. Psychoanalysts undergo years of training to operationalize a complex theory of unconscious mental processes; psychiatrists are medical doctors, just for a start.

Definition of Terms

Psychologists use the word psychotherapy to encompass a full range of psychological techniques and to differentiate between the severity of clients' (or patients', if they are in hospitals) problems. Ivey (1980) makes these distinctions:

Helping — a general framework in which one person offers another person or group assistance, usually in the form of interviewing, counseling or psychotherapy.

Interviewing — a method of information gathering.

Counseling — a more intensive process concerned with assisting normal people to achieve their goals or function more effectively.

Psychotherapy — a longer-term process concerned with reconstruction of the person and large changes in personality structure . . . often restricted in conception to those with pathological problems. (pp. 13-14)

Ivey goes on to point out that the words are used interchangeably and that distinctions between them often blur. Such will be the case here, and I prefer not even to approach the problem of deciding which of our children are "normal" and which are "pathological." I address the issue because Public Law 94-142 terms our students "seriously emotionally disturbed." It requires that we justify their exclusion from the mainstream, the domain of school counselors, presumably because they require more attention to these emotional disturbances than do students with only "normal" troubles. That appears to thrust us beyond the domain of counseling into the realm of psychotherapy if we are not to be derailed from this helping continuum altogether.

To suggest that psychotherapy be a part of our classrooms because it is "longer-term" and deals with more "seriously" disturbed children than does counseling appears to be only a semantic manipulation. But *what we do is shaped by what we say about what we do*, a point that will be highlighted again in this paper. In this case, we tend not to talk specifically about this helping continuum at all. The children are staffed into our self-contained programs in a general belief, as expressed to parents, that they will get the "special help" and the "structure" they need. Most often the "special help" *is* the "structure" — a well-designed, consistently applied behavior management system. But the unspoken assumption is that it will also include more pointed work on "reconstruction of the person and larger changes in personality structure" — in the verbal domains of interviewing and counseling as well as in the behavioral ones of reinforcement systems and academic modifications.

The teacher's view. No one brings the discrepancy between this assumption and the truth into sharper focus than ED/BD classroom teachers. They do feel derailed unless theirs are among the few programs that include regular, direct interactions with the children by psychiatrists, psychologists or social workers. (Remember — the counselors in their schools are at work on the problems of the regular classroom kids now that these difficult ones are getting "special help.") Many teachers do not feel that they are trained to deal directly with their children's emotional problems at all. They have their hands full creating positive, orderly environments in which children can acquire the academic skills that schools are about. In fact, one way some teachers keep a roomful of volatile children in hand is to keep opportunities for emotional responses at a minimum. The classroom may be arranged so that each child, as much as space will allow, is an island; opportunities for social interactions in the group or the mainstream are tightly regulated; instruction is primarily on a one-to-one basis, reinforced by work sheets done at desks or in carrels; talking is in hushed tones and only after hands are raised. The teacher knows the children need something more and, feeling personally incapable and too pressed by what he or she *is* doing, seeks help from such outside sources as mental health centers. But we know, for instance, that children from disadvantaged families — among those who need such help the most — are unlikely to maintain involvement with such clinics (Furman, Sweat and Corcetti, 1965).

The worst upshot of this can be that, instead of receiving more special help with the severe emotional problems that presumably led to placement in a restrictive setting, the ED child actually receives less. Instead of learning ways to solve personal or interpersonal problems, the child has them structured out of his or her classroom environment. Instead of talking to the school counselor about problems at home and with friends, the child receives points for "staying in seat" from an aide, the only regular helper made available to the harried teacher.

The psychotherapist's view. A history of animosity exists between educators and psychotherapists. Clarizio summarizes the situation and the low teacher self-esteem is has engendered.

> Because mental health workers or psychoeducational specialists (psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers and counselors) have not fully understood the teacher role, they have made little available to teachers in the way of specific and concrete practical suggestions pertaining to the management of the child's daily behavior. The sad truth is that the mental health concepts advanced by psychodynamically oriented clinicians have proved of little value to teachers on the front lines. . .

> Because of . . . basic differences in outlook, the folklore of mental hygiene concepts disseminated in teacher training courses has more likely neither promoted the mental health of children nor that of their children. In fact, personal adustment and academic achievement have been viewed as incompatible objectives. *Teachers, being asked to do what they cannot, have consequently been made to feel anxious, helpless, and guilty* with the result that they are less well prepared to fulfill their mental health roles. (1976, p. 4, italics mine)

A negative feeling Clarizio does not mention, but that we have all experienced as well, is anger. It is infuriating to be stereotyped, as teachers often are, as unfeeling drudges, perpetuators of an arbitrary system that denies children their human potential.

> It would be fair to say that the mental health movement has rewarded warmth of feeling; spontaneity, insight, a high interest in others, warm parents; freedom to exercise judgment; warm teachers; and democratic classrooms. The same movement has been against: being compulsive; competitive striving; intellectualism; being either thing- or achievement-oriented; being emotionally irresponsible; . . . teachers who are curriculum-oriented; the regimentation of school life; group tests; red tape; and vice-principals in charge of discipline. Many of these are precisely the values revered by educators . . . (White, 1965, p. 188.)

Premise 1: By excluding what we believe to be our purview, i.e. counseling and psychotherapeutic interventions, we limit our potential as child helpers.

The teachers' and psychotherapists' views described in the preceding two sections are in agreement: teachers should not mess around with psychotherapy — that is the domain of warm, humanistic mental health professionals; teachers have neither the time nor the training to deal directly with serious emotional disturbance. They can be expected to create a structured environment in which the "primary goal is not to increase the child's personal insights but to achieve certain academic objectives" (Clarizio, p. 4).

I believe that this view is nonsense. It represents a perpetuation of myths: (a) about psychotherapy — that all of it is at heart psychodynamic in nature; (b) about psychotherapists — that they and they alone can be trained to be holders of the sacred flame of healing; and (c) about teachers — that our domain is limited to structuring classrooms and must not include restructuring the children themselves.

Myth A - Psychotherapy. Like most stereotypes, these three contain historical elements of simple truth that have been elaborated and perpetuated out of bounds. The first was born out of the pervasive influence of Freud's theory that created an identity in the public mind between psychodynamics, psychoanalysis and psychotherapy. Psychoanalysis is indeed a psychotherapy, but it is only one of three or four major branches of psychotherapy, others being behavioral and existential-humanistic (Hersher, 1970). Because its practice is generally very long term and can only be carried on in private therapy sessions, and because its focus is on uncovering the past and the unconscious, there is little the teacher can do to fit the psychoanalytical model except provide a classroom in which the children can regress without repression. A roomful of children regressing without repression is not one where teachers can readily ply their teaching trade; the libidinous and the anal are not the basics they are comfortable getting back to, and so psychodynamics and education have long since gone their separate ways.

Notice, however, the power of specific words. To many educators, psychoanalysis and psychodynamics are dirty words. They represent not only Freud's theory itself, which they may deem unproven or even absurd, but the frustration, irritation and professional rejection that accompany teachers' unwillingness or inability to participate as full partners in its use. By linguistic extention, the same feeling seems to have become associated with the word psychotherapy, from which the two psycho- words are not distinguished.

By cognitive extension, then, it happens that the notion of psychotherapy, healing the mind and spirit, is the baby that gets thrown out with the psychoanalytic bathwater. Such is the power of words that we have tended to categorize anything listed under the rubric *psychotherapy* of being as irrelevant to our profession and of as little help to our children as psychoanalysis is. Similarly, if with less intensely negative feeling, we have not fully explored helping activities under the heading of counseling. Counseling is for counselors as psychotherapy is for psychotherapists or, perhaps, psychoanalysts, psychiatrists or psychologists — counseling and psychotherapy are *not* for educators.

This has handicapped us with a kind of tunnel vision. Later I will outline some of the things counselors and psychotherapists are doing with practical promise for us in our classrooms. We must at least investigate them. It seems as preposterous to me that we not work directly on children's serious educational disturbance as it would seem if teachers of the visually impaired did not teach Braille or teachers of the learning disabled did not remediate reading. They could adjust their students' school environments to accommodate their major academic handicaps by taping all their lessons for them, but it seems clear to me that our special education mandate is to teach skills that will enable children to participate more normally in all aspects of their lives, not just academic endeavors. As the blind child needs mobility training, the ED/BD child needs cognitive and affective training, and to the extent that such skills are teachable, teachers must take responsibility for teaching them.

In saying this, I am not damning our work so far as irresponsible; I believe that, in practice, we have for years been actively and profitably engaged in psychotherapeutic endeavors. Our classrooms probably represent the most pervasive and extensive use in society today of behavioral therapy, a major branch of psychotherapy, and many teachers spontaneously employ skills and concepts that counselors would term humanistic or client-centered. I simply suggest that by sharpening our perceptions of these activities as being psychotherapeutic, we can open our minds and improve our skills in many ways we have traditionally deemed outside our ken.

Myth B - Psychotherapies. Review the long quotation from Clarizio earlier in this paper. His section title was "Psychiatric Versus Educational Model," and the list of the *them* who are versus the *us* are "mental health or psychoeducational specialists (psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers and counselors)" and "psychodynamically oriented clinicians." Clarizio goes on to summarize the aspects of inappropriate advice that mental health professionals give teachers clearly in terms of psychodynamic theory:

1) involving just one child at a time;
2) having a primary goal of increasing a child's personal insight;
3) being permissively accepting;
4) dealing with the subconscious;
5) focusing on problems other than real ones in the present situation.

This is a good example of Myths A and B as the author leaps to the summary thought that all these mental health professionals would be likely to give the same advice. In fact, the terminology and concepts quoted are clearly from the mouth of one of psychodynamic persuasion; many other therapists and counselors would disagree as vigorously with them as Clarizio does. I call Myth B the Ann Landers response to problems. When Ann's advice is sought by someone in deep emotional trouble, her urgent advice is to "seek professional help." Readers figure she means someone of the sort Clarizio mentions; that professional help exists as a specific thing that will heal, and that in all likelihood this help will be analytical and will involve delving into causes in one's psychosexual past.

In fact, individual professional helpers are a highly diverse group both within and between professional backgrounds; about the only absolute statement possible is that, of those mentioned, only psychiatrists can prescribe drugs. Some psychiatrists do so a lot, others very little. On the East Coast, they are likely to be psychodynamically oriented, in the Midwest, behaviorist. Some engage in direct psychotherapy, others mainly conduct interviews and manage cases, leaving actual counseling and training to social workers or psychologists. I work on a children's psychiatric unit and have visited others; each distributes staff and responsibilities differently. When I read Ann Landers' column and realize that my colleagues and I are part of "professional help," I am struck by how amorphous that is, how full of human variability and fallibility, and how imperfect the struggle we "experts" put up in trying to help.

The ED classroom teacher, pressed for time, short of help and feeling unqualified to counsel, often seeks the Ann Landers solution. The point to be made here is that if teachers have specific changes they want to see made in their children's school behaviors, they are likely to be more satisifed with work they get done in their own space than that administered elsewhere by an external therapist or counselor. As Walker (1979) says about the problem of generalizing change, "*What you teach is what you get*, and *where you teach it is where you get it*." (p. 298) Teachers need not defer to professional helpers — teachers are already professional helpers, experts in specific techniques of behavioral therapy. If we have a need to broaden our skills to include other helping strategies, we are at least as capable of doing so as most other professionals. We need more good training and materials we can get when we need them, but until they are forthcoming, we can use our teaching know-how to make what is available work.

If mental health professionals not trained as teachers can use our technology, surely we teachers not trained as counselors can learn to apply our techniques to their content and help the youngsters in our classes.

Teachers should not feel that in order to be effective counselors they must embark on extra degree programs. Paraprofessionals have been trained in relatively short times to work effectively with people, and a review of 80 studies shows their impact can be as high as or higher than fully trained professionals (Carkhuff, 1968). Hackney, Ivey and Oetting (1970) report teaching one of their secretaries the specific skill of attending in a 20-minute session using videotape feedback and practice. They then taped her in an interview with a student where her performance was judged to be "like a highly skilled, highly experienced counselor" (p. 345). Gardner describes training various paraprofessionals in schools to counsel successfully with troubled children (1975). If these inexperienced people can become effective counselors, teachers who are already knowledgeable about difficult children and who have a primary career focus in helping them surely can, too.

Myth C - Teachers. Just as the words we use to describe what we do to a large extent shape what it is that we do, so the terms we use to describe our profession both reflect and shape our professional character. All aspects of the field of special education for the emotionally/behaviorally handicapped became fully elucidated in 1972 with the publication of the first of the four-volume *Study of Child Variance* by the University of Michigan's Conceptual Project in Emotional Disturbance (Rhodes and Tracy, 1972). The perspective of six schools of thought about emotional disturbance — psychodynamic, behavioral, ecological, biophysical, sociological and counter-theoretical — and their relationship to teaching, were described.

Most textbooks written since *Child Variance* have laid out a menu of these approaches from which the teacher-in-training will presumably choose. (For instance, Shea, 1978; Paul and Epanchin, 1982). After this broad-minded introduction, however, it soon becomes clear that there are basically two opposing camps, that they are in vigorous theoretical disagreement, and that each particular author is committed to one or the other. One camp perceives the task of the teacher to be changing children's observable behaviors by structuring a classroom environment where academic and social learning will occur. The other perceives the task of the teacher to be changing children's perceptions of themselves in relationship to past and present events by individualizing a classroom program where academic learning and personal insight will occur. The most frequently used semantic shorthand terms for these camps are *behavioral* for the first and *psychoeducational* for the second; therein lies in the confusion.

Behaviorism has always had the advantage of being operationalized by its very nature into concrete and specific things-to-do with clear-cut means of assessing their efficacy. From Hewett's description of his engineered classroom in 1968 to the present, the use and acceptance of this technology has grown exponentially. Ten years ago, it seemed to me that the hardest task for teacher-trainers was to convince young teachers that creating warm, accepting classroom climates with an emphasis on teacher/student rapport was not enough, that they needed to provide structure, or "B-Mod," to help children change. Now I believe the excesses we are likelier to see among less-experienced ED/BD teachers are over-reliance on external structuring techniques. Because these perspectives have often been formulated and articulated in direct reaction against each other we have created an adversarial, either/or mind set about them. Compare these statements in regard to causal factors of children's problems:

> No technical procedure will help (the teacher) to overcome a child's resistance to learning, unless she understands the child's motivation and knows how to improve it, if necessary. Any teacher can acquire this knowledge by studying psychodynamics . . . (Dreikurs, 1968, p. 4).
>
> The special educator has two primary responsibilities: first to make sure that he or she does no *further* disservice to the child; and second, to manipulate the child's present environment in order to cause more appropriate behavior to develop *in spite of* past and present circumstances that cannot be changed (Kauffman, 1981, p. 286).

Note also the dates of these statements. The unreasonable exaggeration, the stereotype that has emerged from such recent thought as Kauffman's, is that ED/BD teachers have permission and know-how *only* to "manipulate the environment," *only* to deal with concerns of "appropriate behavior," and, by implication, should keep their hands off that which they cannot see or count. The further elaboration of these notions is that if teachers should deal directly with children's thoughts and emotions, they might really do "further disservice" because they have not been trained to do so. All professional groups guard the secret flames they hold sacred against encroachment by other disciplines, and so teachers have been amply reinforced for these humble views by other mental health professionals.

Premise 2: Psychoeducation has been redefined in current psychological theory and now has much to contribute to and gain from educational technology.

In reading for this paper, I discovered that we educators have had a flame stolen from our professional sanctuary. We all know what the word psychoeducational means. It was identified and elaborated as one of the concepts in the *Child Variance* books where it is defined: "Psychiatric and educational emphases are of equal importance. Educational decisions are made with a consideration of underlying disturbance in the child" (Hoffman, 1974, p. 111). We also can probably name the main proponents of psychoeducation thus defined — for instance, Redl (1959), Morse (1979), Fagen and Long (1970) — and its main components:

> . . . that educational decisions should be based on the consideration of unconscious motives and underlying conflicts; that learning should be pleasant and relevant to the student; that group processes and crisis situations should be utilized to develop insight; that the teacher should establish an empathic relationship with the student; and that, although the teacher must enforce necessary limits, flexibility is important (Brown, G. B., 1981, p. 104).

Thus defined, psychoeducation is most often used as a label for the opposing camp to behaviorism. It suggests connections with psychiatry and with psychodynamic theory (though they themselves may be quite disconnected), with the past and the internal rather than with the present and overt.

While the behaviorists among us were dismissing psychoeducation as soft-headed or at least second-rate, and the psychoeducators were restating their positions and trying to come up with efficacy data to support them, the counseling psychologists took over the term and made it theirs. In doing so, I believe they have built a bridge back to education that child-helpers from both territories can walk across and meet upon. Contrast these psychologists' descriptions of *psychoeducation* with the educational ones quoted above:

> Within the past five years, there has been a good deal of promulgation of the view that psychological practitioners ought to consider educational training as a therapeutic modality . . . Most of the advocates of such an approach agree that the educational model means psychological practitioners seeing their function not in terms of abnormality (or illness) ⟶ diagnosis ⟶ prescription ⟶ therapy ⟶ cure; but rather in terms of direct dissatisfaction (or ambition) ⟶ goal setting ⟶ skill teaching ⟶ satisfaction or goal achievement. The person being served is seen as analogous to a pupil, rather than a patient (Authier, Gustafson, Guerney and Kasdorf, 1975, p. 31).

Authier and his colleagues go on extensively to review the literature of educational therapy as it has been applied in psychiatric hospitals with adult patients. They do so to make their point that the method is not limited just to relatively mild problems. Teaching activities have included instruction, homework,

All professional groups guard the secret flames they hold sacred against encroachment by other disciplines.

The psychoeducator uses here-and-now data to help children make plans and build skills.

modeling, guided participation, practice and feedback. The teaching has been tutorial or in small classes. The curriculum is as diverse as systematic desensitization of phobias, sex therapy, alcohol treatment, assertiveness and human relations training, and the theory of operant conditioning. The focus is the medium, not the message, and the medium is what we educators know best.

It is not surprising that many traditional counselors and psychotherapists take a very dim view of this trend as it becomes stronger. Psychologists are now moving into the same kinds of opposing camps on the issues that educators have long entrenched themselves in. Some fear that a skills approach to counseling will be mechanistic and that the individuality of persons will become lost (Noted by Ivey, 180). Others have concerns about the lack of a clear theoretical base for psychological education, and some appear reluctant to lose a certain kind of power and influence associated with the role of the doctor-like therapist or high priest and to open their methods to scrutiny (Authier et al., 1975). Just as we thought all along!

If mental health professionals who have not been trained as teachers can use our technology to help adults in psychiatric settings learn new ways of responding to others and managing their lives, surely we teachers who have not been trained as counselors or psychotherapists can learn to apply our teaching techniques to their curriculum content and help the still malleable youngsters in our classes.

The psychoeducational activities to be described here are quite opposite those ascribed earlier by Clarizio to mental health professionals.

1) Instead of working with one child at a time, the psychoeducator works regularly with class groups.
2) Instead of the primary goal being to increase children's insight, it is to improve the quality of their responses to their environment.
3) Instead of being permissively accepting, the psychoeducator forceably seeks change.
4) Instead of dealing with the subconscious, the psychoeducator deals with overt behaviors and with such covert behavior as the self-talk that sparks them.
5) Instead of dealing with problems outside of present situations, the psychoeducator uses here-and-now data to help children make plans and build skills for next time.

Of course this is not unheard of — it is already being done in many ED/BD classrooms. New programs that include complete lesson plans written by psychologists to guide teachers in providing therapy for their students in teacherly ways have been published since 1980 and will be described later; Schneider and Robins' *Turtle Manual* has been a resource for teachers of disruptive children since 1975. What I propose is that we not wait for more programs to be published for us, but that we use the therapeutic skills we have, master the ones we need, and assume responsibility for helping our children generate more rewarding thoughts and feelings that will, in turn, generate more adaptive behavior. If we apply social learning theory and the Direct Instruction technology from our domain to the content of the psychotherapists' domain and master the skills of intentional communication from the counselors' domain, we can design or modify our own helping curriculum.

Premise 3: Teachers can go beyond the manipulation of the classroom environment to foster children's academic, affective and social growth. They can intentionally teach children new thoughts, feelings and behaviors.

Semantics again: In his book *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Allen Ivey (1980) uses the term intentionality to describe the mature and effective counselor or psychotherapist. It brought to mind an educational term, Direct Instruction, a model of teaching that assumes neither entry nor mastery levels of achievement without having directly taken responsibility for careful teaching. *Intentionality* conveys the same sense of purposeful direction and precision. Ivey describes the intentional counselor as a person with a sense of capability and an awareness of his or her interaction with the environment. He or she has a broad response repetoire from which to draw the particular response that will be helpful whatever the age, socio-

economic or cultural background of the person to be helped. Three major skills are:

1) The ability to generate a maximum number of verbal and nonverbal sentences to communicate with self and others.

If you can remember guiding ED/BD students through lessons on feeling expression, you know what immobility, the opposite of intentionality is — "stuckness," frozen patterns of responding, the rigid inability to communicate.

2) The ability to generate a maximum number of sentences to communicate with a variety of diverse groups within the culture.

Our groups, parents and children, will not only be culturally diverse; they will be of diverse ages and developmental levels. Here the opposite of intentionality runs the gamut from being patronizing to obtuse to rejecting.

3) The ability to formulate plans, act on many problems existing in a culture and to reflect on these actions. (p. 8-11)

This is a key concept. The intentional counselor directs talk ultimately toward plans, actions the client can practice, apply and generalize.

Note that two of these major skills are described in terms of numbers of sentences generated by the counselor. Language — the words and sentences we use — is the core of helping interactions. Many or most of our children, however, are deficient in language in some way, and there is frequent and appropriate criticism of counseling as involving too much talk, too little action. But remember, *what we do is shaped by what we say about what we do*. Children must have words to think the thoughts to say to themselves in order to control their own behavior — that is how human beings work (Meichenbaum, 1977; Kanfer, 1975). The fact that with some we will carefully select short, simple phrases that can be overlearned and combined with actions or pictures shows our ability to hone our verbal and nonverbal language specifically to communicate with the cultural group that is our ED/BD classroom. "Maximum number of sentences" is better thought of as "maximum number of *kinds* of sentences" than as "maximum number of *words in* sentences."

Occasionally I observe a specific language disability of this kind among teachers who are having problems managing their classrooms. I call the problem "playing teacher," and it is a good example of frozen patterns of responding, the opposite of intentionality. When making school visits to work out management plans for children who are doing poorly, and meeting with the teacher before school, I may be impressed by his or her thoughtful concern for the child as an individual. But as soon as we walk into the classroom, a different person appears. I begin to hear the stock comments and see the stern mask of the teacher role we probably all acted as kids when we played school — "Just what is the meaning of this? . . ." "Don't talk to me in that tone of voice . . ." "If you don't stop that right this minute, I'll . . ." Stuckness. The intentional teacher will develop a good ear for sentences, stop using those that are ineffective or that make matters worse, and tailor helping ones for each child and each situation. Some suggestions for learning to do so will come later in this paper.

Intentionality names a quality that is generalized across helping interactions of all kinds; *Direct Instruction* refers to a teaching technology designed by Siegfried Engelmann (1969) specifically for low SES children whose poor language and attention put them at behavioral and academic disadvantage. *Intentional Psychological Instruction* is a term that synthesizes, for me, the communication competence of the skilled counselor with the precision and planfulness of the skilled teacher.

The complete teaching scripts that comprise the teachers' manuals for Engelmann's texts since published by Science Research Associates as *DISTAR* and the *Corrective* series seem about as distant from what we think of as counseling as anything educationally could be. But I propose that effective psychoeducation for our ED/BD children requires many of the same teaching strategies Engelmann uses for effective academic instruction.

An analogy to the teaching of reading may make this clear. Normal children who come from reading families will learn to read on their own. If we read aloud to them while they look on, they will spontaneously generate the linguistic rules of reading much as they learned to talk (Smith, 1979). This whole language

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Language—the words and sentences we use—is the core of helping interactions.

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approach, however, is not systematic and repetitious enough for cognitively slow children, and for them the reading teacher must specifically teach phonic rules and sight words, work deliberately on comprehension techniques, and broaden their exposure to language of all kinds (Stanovich, 1980). The children who require the most structured and artificial reading instruction of all are poor children from language-deprived homes, who have developed neither the cognitive nor the behavioral skills to learn efficiently. Such children are the targets of Engelmann's Direct Instructional model. When this model was compared to eight others over the four-year span of kindergarten through third grade for over 5,000 students in 139 communities, it placed first by wide margins on all measures of basic academic and cognitive skills, grade equivalencies and affective measurers (Becker and Engelmann, 1977). The study showed that poor children could catch up to middle class peers if reading instruction was precise and focused more on learning behaviors than on actual content. Severely learning disabled youngsters from adequate backgrounds also benefit from this approach. Finally, for the least able students of all, only such functional skills as recognizing the meaning of words on signs and other requirements for community survival comprise reading instruction.

This paper is not about reading, but it is about teaching, and the psychoeducational levels of intentionality required for different groups of children are analogous to the reading models discussed above.

The staircase in *Figure 1* will remind many of Hewett's (1968) diagram of the developmental sequence of educational goals, but in only four steps instead of seven. The visual image of a rising staircase is satisfying, suggesting easy movement up and down. It is important for the teacher to stand first on the top step to gather skills there before stepping down to meet the children and help them up—the teacher must step "down the up staircase." For example, social approval is not used only with autonomous students; on level two, social approval *plus* activities, privileges and progress charts will be used to reinforce desired behaviors, and so on down to level four.

Level One. The top flight, level one students are analogous to the whole-language readers; they have been able to learn spontaneously from the environment so long as opportunities were presented. They represent what all students "should" be, a fact some of our teaching colleagues in the mainstream believe so strongly that they cannot entertain the idea of doing things on levels four, three and two to bring the lagging student closer.

For autonomous level one students, the helping focus is on prevention and enrichment. Books and materials under the broad heading affective education have proliferated in recent years: examples include *Developing Understanding of Self and Others* (DUSO) (Dinkmeyer, 1973), *Teacher Training: A Workshop in Values Education*, a teaching program published by Guidance Associates and based on Kohlberg's (1970) stage theory of cognitive moral development, and *Values Clarification* (Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum, 1972). Activities are designed to heighten students' awareness of their own attitudes, feelings and relationships with others. Lessons typically are varied in presentation format and student activity, move quickly from topic to topic, and do not include any mastery criteria to be met before continuing.

Another approach at this level is offering courses in psychology in secondary schools. They, too, have widely increased in number, and although the classes are academic, their content enhances students' conceptual awareness of mind, emotion and behavior. A most extensive program of psychological education developed at Harvard University for implementation with all students in a public high school states as its goal "that personal psychological development should become a primary objective of education" (Mosher and Sprinthall, 1971, p. 73).

Level Two. Level two students have the skills in their repetoire to manage life in the mainstream, but do so inconsistently; they react to external and internal stimuli by acting out, withdrawing or avoiding school altogether. They will do well for one teacher and be terrors for another; they do well for three days and do battle on the fourth, all for reasons that "were not their fault." They may receive individualized help from a school counselor or social worker; they may participate in a counseling group specially drawn together for children with similar problems; or they may spend a period or two each day in a special education classroom. Their needs are for corrective measures, not preventive ones. As is true of level two readers, they need specific instruction on how to perform the subskills that add up to general capability and practice in doing so consistently.

Training children and adolescents to display specific skills, practice them in the classroom, and then apply them at school, home or in the neighborhood is the psychoeducational method of choice for students at the bad day/good day level. By learning to handle problem situations in ways different from their habitual ones, they can gain daily control over their own thoughts and actions instead of being at the mercy of their moods or the provocations of others.

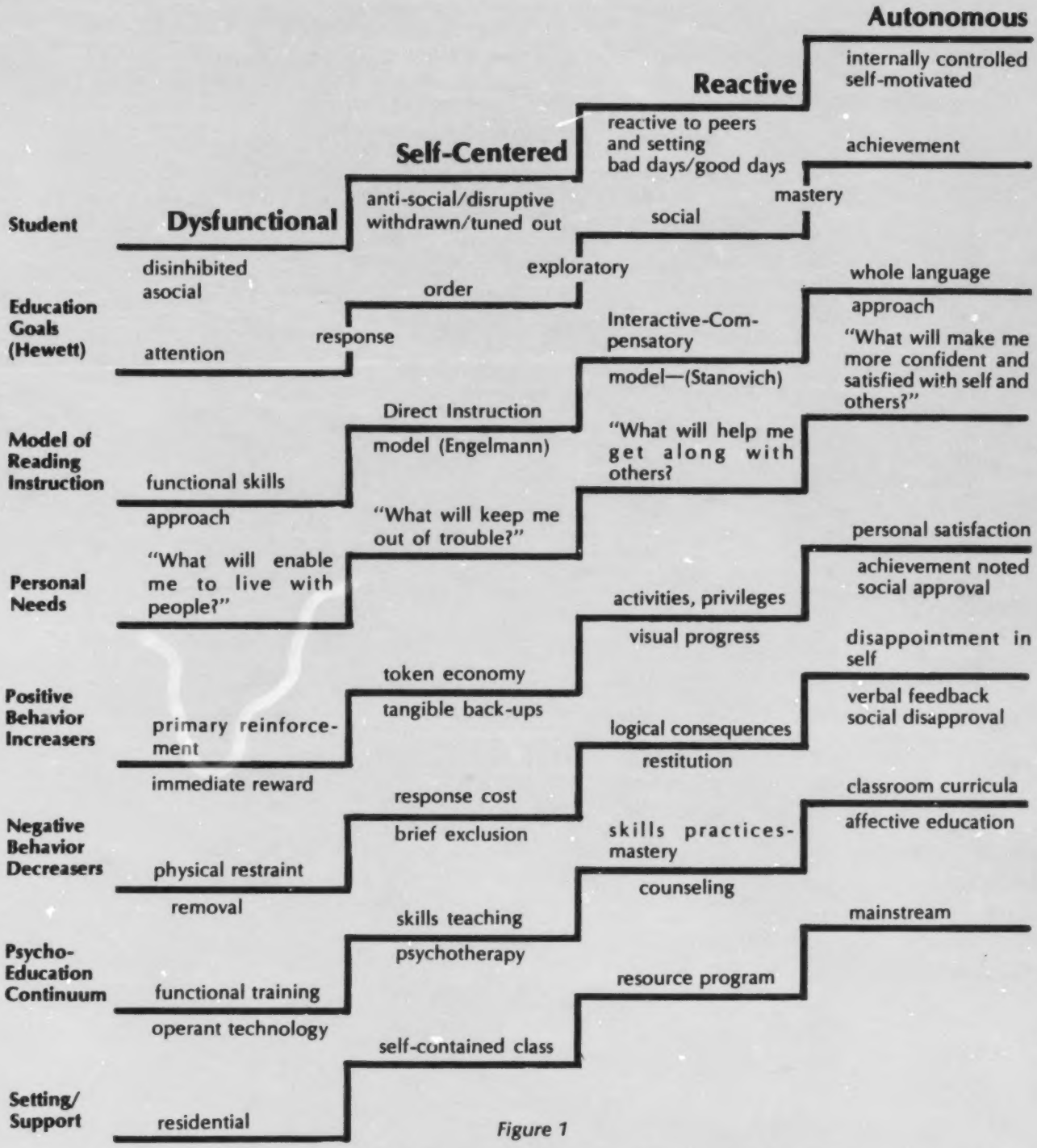


Figure 1

Step-Up/Step-Down Model

Students begin at their entry levels and leave external controls behind as they move up toward autonomy.

Teachers begin at level one and gather skills at each step to use as they move down to meet their students.

Excellent programs have been prepared and published at this level, and each includes explanations of rationale and method. In *Social Skills in the Classroom*, Stephens (1978) describes his directive teaching technique, which includes social modeling, reinforcement and contingency contracting, to teach each of over 100 skills ranging from the concrete — "disposing of trash in the proper container," to the abstract — "distinguishing truth from untruth."

Walker, McConnell, Holmes, Todis, Walker and Golden (1983) have produced a set of videotapes that show children modeling examples and nonexamples of socially appropriate behavior. Like Stephen's work, their program is geared for elementary age children. Called ACCEPTS (A Curriculum for Children's Effective Peer and Teacher Skills), the program's teacher's guide provides complete scripts for 28 skills taught daily for from five to 10 weeks, depending on the pacing appropriate for the group.

Social skills instruction for secondary students is packaged in *Skillstreaming the Adolescent* by Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980). *Skillstreaming* is specifically for seriously skill-deficient youngsters, whether delinquent, aggressive, withdrawn or immature — familiar descriptions to ED/BD teachers. The trainer's explanation to the group of students of how skillstreaming will work will serve the same purpose here:

> . . . the method is the same as those for learning anything new (same way as you learn a sport, learn to drive a car, etc.).
> Examples: a) Show (modeling): "We'll show you the way to do it."
> b) Try (role playing): "You'll practice it, rehearse for when you'll actually use the skill."
> c) Discuss (feedback): "We'll tell you what you did well and what you could use some improvement on."
> d) Practice (transfer): "You'll try it during the week." (p. 51-52)

Fifty skills are broken down into steps and include cognitive activities as specific steps. Each skill includes a step that begins, "Figure out," or "Try to understand," or "Decide," or "Choose." Because the other students in the group will discuss and evaluate a role player's success with all the steps, these cognitive steps must be spoken aloud for the audience. This is a critical aspect of the program. The activity of thinking purposefully and of stating the thought aloud as a specific skill step is a key one in building students' capabilities to manage their own behavior.

This idea, of using one's own words to modify one's own behavior *before* it occurs, is the key concept in *Think Aloud*, a manual for teachers of impulsive primary age children, designed to increase cognitive and social problem-solving skills. Authors Camp and Bash (1982) extensively researched their method for reducing aggression and increasing self-esteem in young boys. *Think Aloud* consists of 23 lessons moving from finding solutions for academic or cognitive problems to solving social problems. Also included are lesson plans for *Great Expectations*, a program for directly teaching improved self-concept by having children perform tasks and practice the self-talk needed for self-reinforcement. The manual includes teaching scripts and reproducible materials — everything needed to teach it — as well as excellent explanatory sections and reviews of where it is or is not likely to be successful — everything needed for the teacher with little or no clinical training to understand it. The authors remark, "We recognize that many teachers are skilled therapists, just as many skilled therapists are skillful teachers, and believe that the program is presented in a form that will be usable by both . . ." (p. 15).

Level Three. *Think Aloud*, which can be adjusted for preventive use in regular classrooms or used as written with small groups, straddles the steps of levels two and three. In fact, the other level two programs described above can also be used at level three, but it is essential to identify the children's particular needs that will require a shift in focus and emphasis, if not in basic content. The opening discussion about the differences between the words counseling and psychotherapy suggests differences in both the severity of problems and the intensity of remediation required, and can be viewed here as a line that separates the top two steps from levels three and four. To follow our reading analogy, level three students may be viewed as the language-deprived youngsters from impoverished backgrounds or the seriously learning disabled—not infrequently, they actually are the same children.

I have used the term self-centered to label level three not simply to describe these children's selfishness, but to suggest in Piagetian terms their cognitive inability to grasp the significance of persons and events outside themselves except as they serve or deny them their needs.

In a lecture presented in Cedar Rapids in the spring of 1982, Goldstein described the teenagers for whom skillstreaming was designed as having characteristics exactly opposite to the YAVIS client preferred by most mental health professionals and, it follows, by most teachers. YAVIS stands for Young, Attractive, Verbal, Intelligent and Successful (Schofield, 1964). The degree and extent to which our level three children are a non-YAVIS will serve here to distinguish them from the reactive children at level two.

1) *Young*. Level three children come in all ages, of course, so perhaps the better term here is age-appropriate. Self-centered children are likely to be extremely immature, persisting in incompetent behaviors that drive age-mate peers away.
2) *Attractive*. Level three children are rarely cute physically or behaviorally. They may be funny looking or unclean and act in ways termed bratty, sulky, nasty or impossible. There is ample evidence that physical attractiveness enhances liking by others from the start. Children with unattractive appearance and/or behavior are generally reinforced less often than appealing ones, leading to less and less chance of their displaying likeable qualities. Teachers and counselors who work with them must be able to get along on slim reinforcement from them in terms of gratitude or displays of people-pleasing behaviors.
3) *Verbal*. The most crucial deficit of level three children, as far as this paper is concerned, is their poverty of language. White (1965) describes the skill of being able to use language as a tool for inhibiting one's impulses and for understanding concepts, i.e. for "cognitive processing," as a great shift in thinking that occurs between ages five and seven. Earlier, language has been the means only of "associative processing" of information — reacting to surface cues, responding superficially to perceived associations between persons or things or happenings without use of logic, and using words primarily to get what one needs. Our level three children are those who have remained "stuck" at this associative level. They do not have the words or the concepts that the words formulate and represent to respond to the counselor, psychotherapist or teacher who counts on verbal exchange to promote change.

   Another milestone in development was conceptualized by Piaget and Inhelder (1958) as the shift from the stage of concrete operations to formal thinking. This is the key cognitive event of adolescence, the new understanding of abstract, conceptual issues, release from the concrete of immediate happenings into the world of hypothesis and possibility. The adolescent can, for the first time, think about thought and isolate it as an entity separate from, though related to, experience. Again, this capability is dependent on language — there is no way to think effectively about such concepts as responsibility or empathy without having words that name them.

   The remedial techniques that distinguish level two from level three helping interactions are specifically related to the deficits in verbal ability described here. Therefore, at level three, (1) use of language is always coupled with use of actions, pictures or symbols to impact meaning, and (2) the teaching of specific language cues for students to use to guide their own thoughts and behaviors is direct and intense.
4) *Intelligent*. In general, the lower the child is on the step model, the lower his or her intelligence, especially verbal intelligence. Correlations between IQ and degree of disturbance must not be misinterpreted as meaning that one causes the other. However, that they are related is clear from follow-up studies that show the predictive power of IQ for academic achievement and future social adjustment for both the severely handicapped (Rutter and Bartak, 1973) and the mildly and moderately disturbed (Robins, 1966). I hesitate to set a definite IQ boundary on the edge of any step, but my experience with students at level three in terms of social perception, verbal functioning and requirement for external controls suggests that their WISC-R verbal IQ's will likely be at or near a standard deviation below the mean, that there is or was earlier in their history a substantially higher performance IQ score, and that subtest scales would be especially low on those that comprise Kaufman's (1979) freedom from distractibility factor — coding, arithmetic and digit span. These characteristics, poor verbal conceptualization skills and distractibility, are likely to thwart the efforts of counselors whose emphasis is on giving verbal advice or on bringing clients to their own conclusions through active listening to their expressive language.
5) *Successful*. Finally, the level three students are unsuccessful at so many key skills that they do not achieve academic or social success in the mainstream and require special classroom arrangement. The irony of this is that these non-YAVIS students, like many adult non-YAVIS counselees, may so thoroughly frustrate their counselors or psychotherapists because of their

inattention, monosyllabic responses and self-centered perceptions that they are given up on "until they can show they want to change" or "are ready for help" like their YAVIS betters.

The relationships between levels of reading instruction and levels of psychoeducational intervention at level three are more than analogous; the effectiveness of both is enhanced by the same set of techniques from Direct Instruction as conceived by Engelmann (1969) discussed earlier in relationship to disadvantaged readers and that have been researched and expanded into other content areas at the University of Oregon. Walker and his Oregon colleagues (1983) have incorporated into their ACCEPTS program these principals of Direct Instruction:

1) clear definitions and specifications of each skill to be targeted;
2) selection and presentation of both instances and non-instances of the correct application/demonstration of each skill;
3) sequencing of skills so that increasing complexity is built into the child's behavioral repetoire as instruction progresses;
4) provision of a variety of practice activities to build in conceptual and behavioral mastery of each skill;
5) use of systematic correction procedures that move the target child toward skill mastery. (p. v-vi)

The ACCEPTS program is included under level two instead of level three because covering 28 skills in from five to 10 weeks assumes a readier grasp of concepts and faster student progress than level three children have, in my experience, displayed. The authors themselves suggest that more durable, positive effects than demonstrated in their follow-up assessments might be advised "by thoroughly implementing the program over a much longer period of time" and including more variation of the procedures (p. 6).

This parallels my experience with all the programs I have included under level two; they are well conceived on strong theoretical bases, but level three children require more repetition, sharper verbal cues, a greater number of related activities, and more practice for mastery than have been written into the programs as they stand.

Level Four. The dysfunctional students at level four are not available to counseling interactions; their psychoeducational help will be in the form of behavioral procedures. Of course, language will accompany and cue the specific behaviors being worked on. One excellent overview of the precise techniques needed at this level is *Helping Others* by Tanner and Parrino (1975). I offer this also as a suggestion that psychotherapy of even the most severely handicapped need not be viewed as too mysterious or difficult for nonprofessionals to engage in, as this training book is directed specifically toward paraprofessionals in such service settings as hospitals.

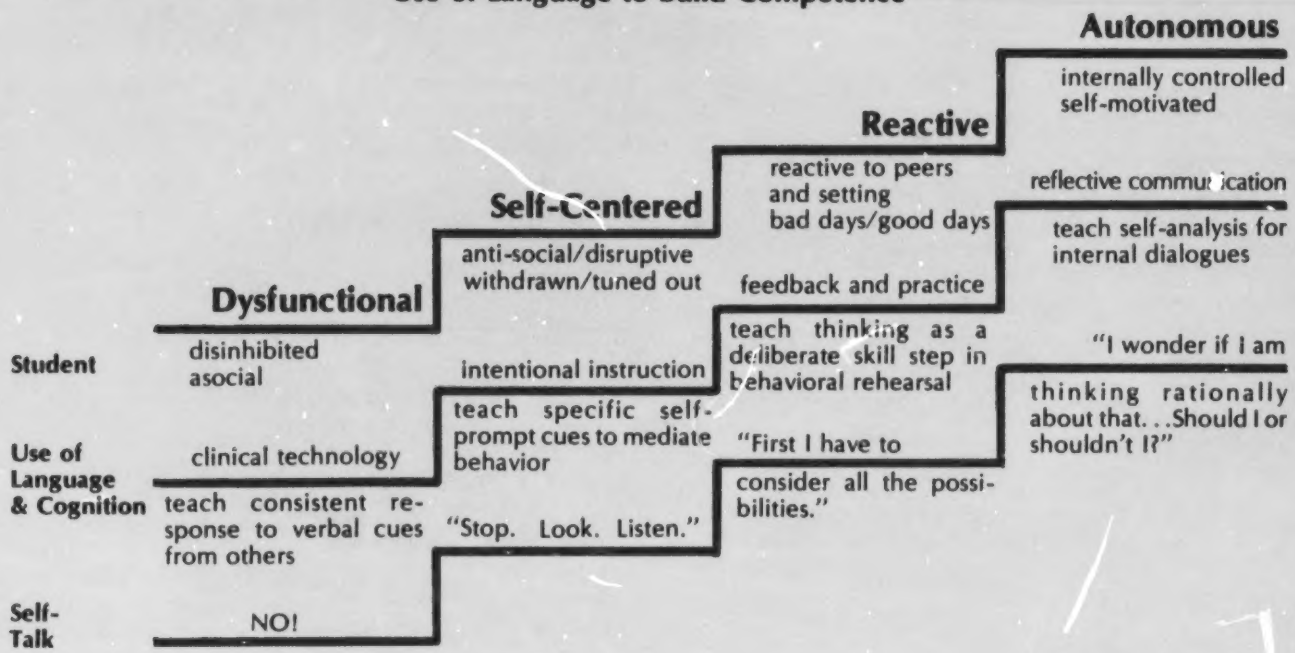
Language and intentional instruction. Earlier, we used this sentence to describe intentionality on the part of helpers: *What we do is shaped by what we say about what we do*. Now we use it to describe the content of our work with our students. It is a most economical and precise concept to consider at the heart of all aspects of our psychoeducational activities with children at all four levels.

Cognitive-behavior modification is a concept squarely in the foreground of our present professional scene. As summarized, conceptualized and explained by Meichenbaum (1977), it demystifies the notion of psychotherapy. Thoughts and feelings, once declared as residing in the little black boxes of our minds to which no one should presume access, now were explained as being cognitive behaviors subject to the same behavioral laws as all other behaviors. This notion is the key to freeing psychoeducation from the mysteriousness of psychodynamic theory, and freeing behaviorism from the limitations of only the seeable and countable.

The vehicle for cognitive behavior modification is language, and the specific psychoeducational technique that will be most planfully employed for specific individuals will depend on the level of language it requires. In 1947, Shaffer defined therapy as a "learning process through which a person acquires an ability to speak to himself in appropriate ways so as to control his own conduct" (p. 463). Such deliberate self-instruction for mediating or changing behavior may take the form of an internal Socratic dialogue at level one, of a well-rehearsed thinking skill step at level two, of a persistent echo of an overlearned phrase at level three, or of the conditioned internal response to an oft-repeated and finally internalized verbal command at level four.

Figure 2

Step Up/Step Down Model
Use of Language to Build Competence



It is beyond the scope of this paper to list the many individualized cognitive-behavioral therapies that have been used with children. Simple analogies from everyday thought may serve to illustrate the nature of the self-talk they employ: level one: "Should I or shouldn't I?"; level two: "Now I should count to 10"; level three: "i before e except after c."; level four: "HOT!" *What we do is shaped by what we say about what we do* has been used as a level two self-talk lesson throughout this paper!

Premise 4: Psychologists and educators must together prepare materials and training opportunities for ED/BD teachers so that we will feel competent and responsible to incorporate Intentional Psychological Instruction as the central feature of our classrooms.

The programs described earlier are hopefully just the first vanguard of many to come. They provide the conscientious teacher with well-focused, carefully planned teaching activities for well-defined populations. Now that such psychoeducational technologies of proven effectiveness are becoming more readily available, it is untenable that we who teach in ED/BD self-contained classrooms should not make use of them. If teachers of the blind could teach better vision, we would expect that to be the main goal of their classrooms. To the extent that we can teach better thinking, emotional responding and behavior, doing so should be the main goal of ours.

To do that well, however, we not only need to decide what program to use with which group of children, a very big order in intentionality itself; we need also to know how to adapt our words and sentences so that we become intentional teachers in the myriad of one-to-one encounters we have every day. Teaching in our classrooms is demanding, often exhausting business, the only one of the helping professions that requires such extensive after-hours planning and such all-day-long, client-intensive work. Perhaps the redefinition of psychoeducation will lead to the inclusion of training in specific counseling skills in our preservice training programs so that we are not "burned out" by the task. I believe this is imperative if we are to be the competent, confident child helpers that society expects and our students need.

As this paper is to offer teachers directly useful suggestions and not simply impassioned pleas for better

tomorrows, I close this section with a list of ways we can acquire some of these skills on our own.

Read books by several key therapists. We must not count on just watered down or condensed accounts such as those offered in this paper. We must delve and explore, and do so widely enough to provide our bows with several conceptual strings. The authors below practice the clear, unfancy communication they preach, so their books make for lively reading:

On Becoming A Person (1961) and *Freedom to Learn* (1969) by Carl Rogers.

Reality Therapy (1965) and *Schools Without Failure* (1969) by William Glasser.

Cognitive-Behavior Modification: An Integrative Approach (1979) by Donald Meichenbaum.

Humanistic Psychotherapy (1973) and *How to Prevent Your Child from Becoming a Neurotic Adult* (1966) by Albert Ellis.

Two collections of articles allows the theorists behind the programs described earlier to speak for themselves:

Social Competence. Interventions for Children and Adults (1980) by Rathjen and Foreyt.

Teaching Social Skills to Children (1980) by Cartledge and Milburn.

Study and practice communication skills. Our main psychoeducational planning will be for groups; groups are what life in mainstream classrooms is all about. However, life in ED/BD classrooms is organized so that much (perhaps most) of the day is spent in one-to-one teaching or none-to-one seatwork. Our overall goal will be to increase group interaction, but these opportunities for individualized time can also be balanced to include counseling interactions as well as academic ones.

When teachers protest that they are undertrained to provide counseling, it is likely that they mean they do not know *what to say*. Teachers, after all, are supposed to provide answers to problems. To become intentional counselors, however, teachers need rather to learn *how to listen* and respond to what *children* say. We may study any counseling technique or supportive therapy and discover that a fundamental first step in each is to convey personal care for the children and close attention to their ideas. It seems that this should just naturally happen — why would we be ED/BD teachers if we did not feel that way? But we all tend to talk too much, to give too much advice and too many directions, i.e. to "play teacher." Conveying the care and attention we feel in ways that will make our children better is an art, and luckily it is an art that can be learned. The best "natural teacher" in the world will become still better when he or she examines the components of successful helping communication and can fine tune them for each person in each situation. That is the meaning of intentionality for teachers, just as it is for counselors.

The books listed below are some that explain and provide exercises for practicing the communication *how's* that effective counselors are trained to use:

Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators (1977) by Gazda, Asbury, Balyer, Childers and Walters.

Essential Interviewing (1979) by Evans, Hearn, Uhlemann and Ivey.

Counseling and Psychotherapy: Skills, Theories and Practice (1980) by Allen Ivey.

More familiar to special educators are the following works. They demonstrate, respectively, how teachers may put psychoanalytic, Rogerian and Alderian-based techniques to work in teacher-student communication:

"Strategy and Techniques of the Life Space Interview" *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* (1959) by Fritz Redl.

T.E.T.: Teacher Effectiveness Training (1974) by Thomas Gordon.

Teacher and Child (1972) by Haim Ginott.

Two authors of texts for ED/BD teachers offer excellent discussions of, respectively, counseling techniques and therapies — behavioral, educational, rational-cognitive and others:

Adolescents with Behavior Problems: Strategies for Teaching, Counseling and Parent Involvement (1980) by Vernon Jones.

Understanding and Teaching Emotionally Disturbed Children (1980) by Phyllis K. Newcomer.

Take a course, class or workshop in counseling, human relations, small group dynamics or microcounseling. If a college is not available, watch for announcements of training programs. Many area mental health facilities offer sessions for persons volunteering to serve as paraprofessionals in crisis centers or suicide hot lines. In Iowa, the area education agencies sometimes provide excellent counseling workshops for regular teachers. Reading is essential, but so is practice with others, and it especially helps to receive feedback from more experienced persons.

Arrange a "practicum" for yourself. Select the teaching program from those listed earlier under level two, read every word of the explanatory material and teach at least one series of daily lessons *exactly* as they are laid out. This way you will have had the type of structured teaching used in the program you selected fully taught to you before you think about modifications. In our preservice training, we were encouraged to be creative, not bound to a teaching manual. To teach these programs well, we must become thoroughly experienced with the teaching method as described before we innovate. One thing the intentional teacher does not do is "wing it"!

Work with a partner. Pair up with a colleague in your school who shares your interest and share your readings and experience. Give each other feedback on a real or modeled classroom session. The outcome is likely to be increased self-confidence in your ability to work directly to try to change your students' thoughts, feelings and behaviors. Another benefit is that the greater the number of regular or special education teachers you engage in the project, the wider the network of intentional child-helpers there will be to catch your students when they stumble. Perhaps the ultimate payoff for learning these skills will be your ability to respond more intentionally to whoever you are with in your personal as well as professional life.

A term associated with cognitive-behavior modification is cognitive restructuring, a therapeutic approach "whose major mode of action is modifying the patient's thinking and the presumed assumptions and attitudes underlying his cognitions" (Meichenbaum, 1977, p. 184). Its best-known proponent is Albert Ellis whose Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) has been quite widely adapted for use in schools. It serves well as one vehicle for showing how a psychotherapy can be modified by teachers for their own psychoeducational purposes; we call our cognitive restructuring class Thinking Skills. Our other psychoeducational class is called, ordinarily enough, Social Skills. It too serves to demonstrate tailoring an existing model to fit the levels of the children we teach.

The Tailoring-to-Fit of Psychoeducation

There is no end to the content of therapeutic interventions that could be adapted to the classroom for Intentional Psychological Instruction. Level two included programs designed to teach problem solving, high self-esteem, and social skills along a continuum that stretches from self-help to aggression to alternatives. New classroom curriculum could be written to teach, for instance, assertiveness or interpersonal communication skills. Excellent group programs for training older adolescents or adults are available for both of these — *Personal Effectiveness* by Liberman, King, DeRisi and McCann (1975) and *Real Talk* by Gazda, Walters and Chalders (1981) respectively.

A central idea of this paper is that if, as teachers, we are clear about what we want our students to know and are practiced in the direct instruction-modeling-practice method of teaching, we can modify existing programs or create new ones to meet our children's specific needs. Assertiveness techniques as they are taught to adults might be quite ineffective, even disastrous, for ornery fifth graders encountering a rigid, authoritarian vice-principal who may not feel that any of our ED/BD students have a "perfect right" to anything much. But if the child's functioning level on our staircase and its interaction with the specifics of his or her environment are thoughtfully analyzed, assertiveness or any other psychological construct can either be tailored or fit or confidently rejected in favor of one that needs fewer alterations or a shorter wait until it is grown into. Following are variables that will affect what we will do for whom:

Age — chronological, mental and social. We consider CA's and MA's any time we take IQ's into account. Clearly there is a general trend downward for both from level one to level four; our relatively autonomous seven-year-old will be a very much less autonomous person in most dimensions than a fully autonomous 17-year-old. For our ED/BD children, social age is at least as critical a variable as mental age if it is discrepant from chronological age. Unfortunately, we have no universally understood SQ, or social quotient, available to express a precise ratio between social and chronological age. We can only point to behaviors that load on an immaturity factor (Quay, 1977) or use our own parental norms to say, "those tantrums are just like my two-year-old's."

My experience has been that most of our self-contained students fit on the level three, self-centered step, and that regardless of age, they need instruction that is even more direct, planned in smaller steps, and slower paced than the classroom program described earlier. A specific example is the Skillstreaming curriculum (Goldstein et al., 1980). Although it is intended for adolescents experiencing social problems, they seem to be more like the school counselor's clientele than the ED/BD teacher's. We find the book indispensable in our adolescent classroom, but must always adjust it down for our hospitalized groups. An example that may make this CA/SA interaction clear is that we use many of the modifications of

Skillstreaming which Ellen McGinnis describes in this volume for elementary classrooms with our older group of junior and senior high school age patients.

Type of skill steps - molar and molecular. The difference between the idea of a social skill as molar, a conceptual whole, or as molecular, a sum of discrete behaviors, will affect our teaching strategy. As a generalization, it seems likelier that the level one student will grasp a complete concept more readily than a level four student will. However, there are a number of exceptions. Marc Gold (1976) successfully uses a broad concept cue for training severely retarded adolescents, "Try another way," instead of specifying any steps. Camp and Bash's *Think Aloud* (1982) program for primary school students is designed to teach generic problem-solving skills which can be applied to any academic and social situation. In training young students to inhibit impulsive behaviors, Kendall (1981) begins with very specific examples and activities and deliberately fades teaching vocabulary from concrete labels to conceptual ones as the focus shifts from academic tasks to hypothetical social situations. "Look at all the possibilities" will be a more generally useful self-statement than "I must look at every circle," but it may take much concrete practice for the child to attach real meaning and power to the conceptual self-instruction.

In the Direct Instruction model, as taught by Engelmann and described and summarized by Becker and Carmine (1980), this is referred to as the shift from overtized to covertized problem-solving strategies. Again to use Skillstreaming as an example, consider these broad, general steps.

Skill 28: Responding to Teasing

Steps

1. Decide if you are being teased.
2. Think about the ways to deal with the teasing.
3. Choose the best way and do it. (p. 113)

The group leader will elicit some examples of ways to deal with teasing and model others; the trainer notes suggest these: "Gracefully accept it; make a joke of it; ignore it."

For our group, these steps would represent an end-place, the point at which the explicit teaching, practice and feedback of every action is no longer required. First our students need overt practice of subskills; then, as these become routine, they become covertized. Visible practice of each step is no longer necessary, and only the choice itself is overt.

To teach our students to deal with teasing, then, we have to first teach specific choice. We boiled them down to two, practiced the service of steps that comprised them, and added a final step.

Responding to Teasing

1. Decide if you are being teased.
2. Think about the ways to deal with the teasing:
   - A. Ignore
     - *no* eye contact
     - *no* facial expression — smiles, scowls or sneers
     - *no* words

     OR
   - B. Make an assertive response
     - use eye contact
     - keep face and body relaxed and natural
     - choose a short statement:
       - make an I statement
       - request to please stop
       - agree with the teaser
       - make a people-pleasing remark
     - use a clear and quiet voice
3. Choose the best way and do it
4. Get out of the teaser's wind
   - go to a friend
   - go to an adult
   - go on an errand.

More socially adept teasers than ours would have more choices open to them and would not need how-to-ignore lessons; ours have been repeatedly advised to ignore to no avail because they did not know how to

do it. They ultimately need the cognition of the molar concept, but for some children, it may first require the teaching of a lot of molecules.

Amount of practice. A feature of Direct Instruction is a shift from massed practice of new skills to distributed practice as the skills are incorporated into more complex routines. On our step model, we will use a heavier ratio of massed to distributive practice as we move down the levels from one to four. Again, our level three teasing example serves as an illustration. The exact opposite of the ignoring steps has already been repeatedly practiced under the heading People-Pleasing, i.e.: 1) make eye contact; (2) smile; (3) say the person's name and make a pleasant remark. To teach ignoring, the rule "*no* eye contact, *no* facial expression, *no* words" is rehearsed in choral fashion, written and round-robin role-played. The teasing teacher moves quickly from desk to desk so that each student has many short practices. (The teacher sounds a little like a drill-sergeant — actually, these sessions are lively and a lot of fun.) Only when the students show that the words of the rule have become automatic and the basic skill behaviors mastered, does the class move on to the next rule, incorporating the earlier one and occasionally having a review round as progress continues toward fully developed role-plays.

Level one students, by contrast, will be far likelier to make good use of the rule as it is simply stated and explained, incorporating it quickly into increasingly complex applications. Remember — they are the better-developed users of language who, no longer requiring the direct interaction of words and actions for learning, can make immediate use of the concepts the words convey, project them mentally into hypothetical situations and learn from the imagined outcomes.

The difference in the amount of time that must be spent helping autonomous and self-centered students acquire a new skill is clear. Goldstein et al., suggest that each Skillstreaming skill take roughly one one-hour class a week. We schedule social skills classes for a half-hour daily and may spend two weeks on as crucial and complex a skill as responding to teasing with all of its ramifications and massed practice for our group. The most complex routines in which practice may be distributed are those that occur in students' lives outside our classrooms. To ensure that practice occurs there, behavioral homework is a vitally important part of psychoeducation at all levels. Homework is our means of structuring opportunities for generalization to occur, and unless our lessons generalize, there is little point to the whole enterprise.

Knowing how to engineer meaningful generalization activities is difficult since there may be unequal opportunities for practice. Some social situations are faced daily or may be planned in advance; a major component of Skillstreaming is rehearsing an anticipated scene with one student and having him or her report attempts to use the skills back to the group. McGinnis' elementary age modifications include a full continuum of homework activities starting from surprise simulations set up by the teacher in the ED/BD classroom and extending out to the larger school and reports of home or neighborhood. Some social situations, such as those requiring resistance to temptation, may be infrequent and impossible to simulate. The best we can do is set up specific homework assignments for skills that require initiation by the student or that occur daily — on a school bus, for instance. Successfully handling these real-life situations in a socially competent way may increase the value of the training to the student, and make it likelier that he or she will attempt to use other skills. The broader the conceptual skill the student can learn to operationalize, the likelier generalization will occur.

Type of cues. Cues are verbal or visual stimuli that serve to prompt behaviors. The differences in the kind of language cues appropriate at the lower levels has been touched on above. As a rule, the lower the level, the younger the child and the less familiar the skill to be learned, the sharper, more frequent and more concrete the cue must be. For children who have a hard time managing their own behavior, a specific cue must become so automatic that it will surface readily at a given stimulus, and provide a message that mediates behavior so that he or she self-instructs instead of self-destructs.

The cues we teach are likelier to stick (to be like a tape recorder that automatically switches on to play a recorded message) if they are short with a verbal punch, and if the teacher reinforces them in a kind of rhythmic exchange with the children. The pace of such a lesson is well known to teachers who have taught DISTAR. Walker's ACCEPT program details this method in actual scripts for every lesson and it serves as an excellent model. Here is how responding to teasing is taught there:

"When someone teases you, you should look away and not answer.
When someone teases you, you should do what?"
LOOK AWAY AND NOT ANSWER (Reinforce or correct).
"When should you look away and not answer?"
WHEN SOMEONE TEASES YOU (Reinforce or correct).
"Kevin is teasing Gail. What should Gail do?"

LOOK AWAY AND NOT ANSWER (Reinforce or correct).
"Susan is teasing Stephanie. What should Stephanie do?"
LOOK AWAY AND NOT ANSWER (Reinforce or correct).
"When should you look away and not answer?"
WHEN SOMEONE TEASES YOU (Reinforce or correct). (p. 93)

The lesson moves on with guided discussion, examples and nonexamples from the videotape (another key Direct Instruction method that it pays to emulate), teacher modeling and practice until everyone shows they can do the skill the right way.

The reduction of a skill to a bare-bones cue can backfire. We taught the giving a compliment skill to a group that included a boy who probably had not said anything pleasant to anyone in years. For a cue at an entry level of complimenting, we tried, "Say a fair pair" and did round-robin practice of such two word compliments as "great job," "pretty dress," and "nice try." Andy's mental tape-recorder got stuck not with the conceptual cue, but with the specific compliment "nice shirt" which he practiced rigorously and thereby taught the younger kids. As reinforcement systems on the living unit often include giving a point or chip for using the social skill of the week, nurses and aides were soon having their token banks broken with nice shirt's. We soon fixed that for everyone but Andy, who persisted and may even now be offering "nice shirt" as his only pleasantry.

Cues can also be visual. For language deficient children especially, a picture flashing in their minds may be what turns on a self-talk tape. Palkes, Stewart and Freedman (1972) coupled traffic signs with verbal instructions to teach self-talk to hyperactive boys, and we draw a stop sign every time we have a think-before-you-act kind of skillstep.

Figure 3

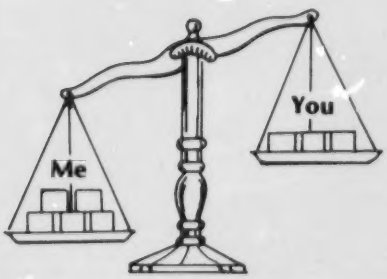
Visual Cues

Eye Contact
+
Smile=
People Pleasing

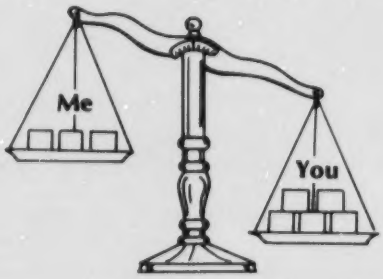
To emphasize the need for people-pleasing, we frequently draw our eye-contact-smiler on the blackboard. Another helpful visual image for teaching skills like convincing another, negotiating, or answering a complaint is a scale. The key concept of giving weight to the other person's viewpoint is demonstrated literally as stones are added to the "My" side for each statement of the arguer's position and to the "Your" side for each display of asking for or listening to the other person. Success is described as the balance that leaves both sides satisfied.

Figure 4

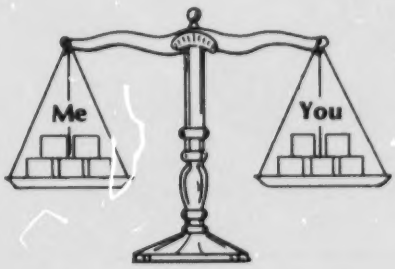
Visual Model of Negotiating



I say all my ideas. You feel put down and get mad.



You say all your ideas. I feel like a loser who got dumped on.



I say my ideas and ask you yours. We solve the problem so we both feel satisfied.

Although this may be needed more by level three than by level one students, it is likely to enhance meaning at any level. Consider how symbols like Deno's (1970) triangular cascade of service and Hewett's staircase of reinforcers stay in our minds to summarize quantities of words into concepts. Someone has said that it is flags, not armies, that win wars.

Quality of feedback. When the ACCESS lesson directs the teacher to "reinforce or correct," it means the precise routines typical of Direct Instruction lessons. The student is either commended for making the response in "the right way" or is immediately corrected using a basic model, lead, test format. At every instance of an error, the teacher says, "no" and then models a right way, leads the student through the right way and checks to see that the student can do or say it the right way on his or her own.

This teaching skill is usually taught with level four students, and teachers will do well to carry it up the staircase with them. These are not values clarification activities where ostensibly anything goes so long as we are clear about it. These are training lessons where an aggressive response is as wrong as 5x5=55; mistakes must be corrected, a better idea demonstrated, and the student led to immediate practice of the right way.

As you progress up the levels, you take less and less direct responsibility for reinforcement and correction. When the other students in the group are the ones who evaluate a classmate's role-playing, their own learning is reinforced. Furthermore, their consensus is much more powerful feedback than teacher direction. Still, the teacher must take responsibility for seeing that the student trainee gets clear, accurate information and is reinforced only for appropriate prosocial responses. Some group members may be slow to give up recounting instances of their aggressive responding — "Well, if he said that to me, I'd punch him out." A clear "no" and a reminder that this class is to teach ways for kids to *stop* getting into fights and trouble will give both students the correct feedback they need. It is important to be encouraging and to accept alternatives — that is a basic tenet of problem solving. But a poor response that deviates substantially from the goal must be corrected even though the student should be warmly commended for a good try.

Summary

Psychoeducational interventions use teaching technology to provide preventive activities, counseling or psychotherapeutic help to children and adolescents in school. Many excellent resources are available, but to suit our preference and the children's needs, we may have to modify them or develop our own sets of lessons. This can be achieved if we take careful notice of our students' functional levels and teach intentionally. The phrase *Intentional Psychological Instruction* is meant to convey: (1) the use of as many components of Direct Instruction as are required to teach cognitive and behavioral skills to mastery in the least amount of time; and (2) the use of as many techniques of intentional counseling as we can learn to communicate therapeutically with our students and help them progress toward long-term goals.

In the example to follow, "shoulds" are discussed. Here are some shoulds for us to bear in mind as we take on psychoeducational challenges in our classrooms.

We should abide by the same ethical guidelines that counselors use (Ivey, 1980), chiefly these:

1) **Respect children's rights and personal privacy** — within the boundaries of a teacher's responsibility. Our students need to know that we cannot keep knowledge confidential that could lead to harm of themselves or others.

2) **Recognize our limitations**. Our arena is the classroom, our stage the small group meeting, our teaching is in psychoeducational skills training and empathic, problem-solving communication skills. Our concerns are the here-and-now thoughts, feelings and behaviors of our children. It is not our business to make psychiatric diagnoses or attempt to root out psychosexual causes of our students' problems. Not only could such activities cause harm to the children, they would not be particularly useful to us. We have plenty to do in our own domains!

3) **Avoid asking irrelevant details**. In our profession, such details are most likely to be sought about a child's family life and history. Fascinating as some such horror stories may be, they are not our business to learn or to spread. Again, focusing on them is likelier to hurt than to help if we use them as excuses for writing off the child's potential to develop and change.

4) **Treat our students as we would like to be treated** — with respect, dignity, kindness and honesty. Notice that this excludes harsh, demanding confrontation, a counseling style that is sometimes affected but may truly do harm.

If we follow these guidelines, we will meet our responsibility to, in Kauffman's words, "do no *further* disservice to the child" as we meet our greater responsibility to help the child thrive emotionally, cognitively and socially as well as academically.

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Section II

Interventions—Selected Strategies

Supportive Peer Groups A Behavior Management Program for Children

by Tim Virden

Human society and biology are constructed so that cooperation is an absolute necessity for the survival of our species and of every individual. The ability to work with other people is the keys one to building and maintaining stable families, obtaining and keeping a job, being part of a neighborhood and community, establishing stable friendships and being a responsible citizen. Thus, one of the most important long-term goals of schools is to give students the skills and attitudes necessary to form and maintain stable, cooperative relationships with other people. Teaching needs to be aimed at promoting the competencies needed to work with others under the discipline imposed by a common task and purpose.

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Introduction

This chapter outlines a behavior management program based on groups. These groups draw their strength from children as helpers. The groups are for children and by children, with adult guidance. They are founded on the belief that children with problems know a great deal about their problems. If this knowledge can be organized and put to use helping one another, then change is inevitable. The power of peer support is immeasurable and the capacity for care is limitless.

Teachers of children with emotional and behavioral disabilities face enormous challenges. Understanding the vast range in disabilities, managing a classroom environment with the complexities offered by the integration of these disabilities, maintaining a healthy and productive relationship with parents and maintaining a consistent, objective and rational approach on a daily basis are but a few of these challenges.

Too often, teachers accept these challenges only to control behaviors and avoid conflict. Actual teaching (direct instruction) in behavior management with children is avoided. Token economies, point systems and other external management techniques are readily available and generally non-threatening to the teacher. They are easily managed and provide tangible reinforcement for the child. The behaviorist approach to classroom management also provides an easy and efficient means of data collection. However, the actual tools of self-management, behavioral analysis and communciation are not developed. The child relates well to his or her checklist and reinforcement menu, but is unable to relate directly to his or her problems. The skills needed to analyze his or her behavior and express needs and feelings have not been taught.

As children grow, they are guided through important developmental stages. They are offered encouragement and a progression of new and more challenging tasks. If the child experiences difficulty in one or more areas, additional encouragement or instruction is provided. Children having problems with fine motor control or learning initial consonant sounds can receive remediation in a variety of ways. Reading laboratories, teacher associates, mother helpers and peer teachers are all used in schools to provide the necessary instruction to teach and reinforce these skills. The same remediation and reinforcement can be found in many areas of a child's lifetime instruction.

Behaviorally and emotionally disabled children need to learn new ways of behaving. They must receive direct instruction in self-management. They need to be provided with tools to analyze their behavior and the behavior of others. They must receive guidance throughout this process and be helped in refining their behavior as improvement develops.

The special education classroom provides an ideal environment for necessary skills to develop. Problems are easily identified, the student/teacher ratio is generally low, and a variety of social situations are available for trial of newly acquired skills. The environment offers safety and support during this difficult process and the "group" is present — all with problems, all in need of new skills to cope with these problems, and all with an unlimited capacity to care and help one another.

Behaviorally and emotionally disabled children need to learn new ways of behaving. They need to be provided with tools to analyze their behavior and the behavior of others.

The Peer Group

Developing a supportive peer group is not a new idea. Groups have existed from the beginning of time and their effect has been studied for about as long.

In the 1950's, a program of Guided Group Interaction (GGI) began at Highfields Residential Treatment Program in Hopewell, New Jersey. After completing work at Highfields, Harry Vorrath extended GGI to a program he called Positive Peer Culture (Garner 1980).

In *Positive Peer Culture* (1974), Vorrath and Brendtro outline a program designed for adolescents. The program uses the strength and support of the peer group to promote behavior change. The supportive peer group outlined here is based on this work, only modified to benefit young children.

Thirteen years of classroom teaching experience, graduate work under the direction of Dr. Howard Garner of Virginia Commonwealth University, and work at the Elk Hill Farm Residential Treatment Program provided the clinical base for the development of this program.

The belief that children know a great deal about themselves and their problems is the foundation for building the supportive peer group. This is not to say children don't have much to learn, but rather that what they know can be used and developed into a powerful tool for helping. With teacher guidance and peer support, even very young children with emotional and behavioral difficulties can become a closely knit group — caring and helping one another toward a more productive and happy school experience.

In their 1982 handbook, *Structuring Cooperative Learning Experiences in the Classroom*, David and Roger Johnson state:

> Constructive peer relationships should be promoted in both family and school settings. Fostering such relationships may be the most important challenge facing parents, educators and other adults who wish to promote healthy development and effective socialization. The steps involved can be objectively identified. We can make a list of these steps and see if they are occurring through direct observation and sensitive questioning. If they are not occurring, we can identify appropriate measures to change the situation. The steps are:
>
> 1. Ensuring physical proximity between children and their peers.
> 2. Structuring cooperative interdependence: encouraging activities that stimulate peers to work or play together.
> 3. Emphasizing joint rather than individual products whenever feasible.
> 4. Directly teaching the interpersonal and small group skills needed to build and maintain collaborative relationships with peers; e.g., children can be helped to learn how to be effective leaders.
> 5. Giving children meaningful responsibility for the well-being and success of their peers.
> 6. Encouraging the feelings of support, acceptance, concern and commitment that are part of collaborative situations.
> 7. Holding children accountable for fulfilling their obligations and responsibilities to their collaborators and giving them mutual authority over each other.
> 8. Ensuring that children experience success in a cooperative group setting.
> 9. Promoting the appropriate exchange of personal information between children and their peers—neither joy nor sorrow should be experienced in solitude.
> 10. On occasion, structuring appropriate interpersonal and intergroup competition among peers.
> 11. Structuring appropriate individualistic activities on occasion.
> 12. Encouraging perspective-taking dialogues with diverse peers.
> 13. Modeling and providing opportunities for prosocial actions and activities.
> 14. Providing opportunities for children to participate in decision-making appropriate to their age.
> 15. Suppressing peer pressures for antisocial conduct.
> 16. Ensuring that, where possible, older children interact with and supervise younger ones, and that adults appropriately oversee (or monitor) such interactions.

The supportive peer group management program outlined in this chapter is based on children's ability to help and care for one another. It uses a gentle combination of "tough love" and "tender love." It provides a structured environment that allows flexibility in the classroom routine. It praises the children for showing their problems and rewards them for having the strength to change them.

The belief that children know a great deal about themselves and their problems is the foundation for building the supportive peer group. Even very young children can become a closely knit group, caring and helping one another toward a happy school experience.

Confrontation

The development of the peer group focuses on a "generic" problem list. Using this list and carefully guided confrontation techniques, the children help direct one another to more appropriate ways of working through their problems.

With confrontation used to point out these problems, it becomes important to teach the children how to confront one another in a "helpful" way. "Tender love" is a way of working through problems without closing down communication. It is carefully guided discussion that supports the child for having shown his or her problem. It is quiet, soft and direct, but tells it like it is. The child is told that classmates care about him or her and is encouraged to seek out their assistance. Tender love is touching, smiling, and plenty of eye contact. Above all, tender love is complete honesty and trust in the child's ability to make it.

"Tough love" confrontation is used less often and always under the careful watch of the teacher or group leader. Like tender love, tough love is honest, to the point, and requires eye contact. It isn't quiet and soft, however. Tough love *demands* that expectations be met. It says to the child: "You can do it, so why play games?" The highest expectations are maintained throughout the child's school experiences, for without the expectations there is no improvement.

Tough love can be physical, but not punitive. A child may need to be held, carried, or in some way restrained to avoid causing harm to him/herself or someone else. During this time, the child needs to be talked to in an effort to calm him or her down. The children can also participate in these more aggressive situations. They can easily offer their support and encouragement as the teacher restrains a child, or immediately afterward. Very young children should be discouraged from helping the teacher restrain another child, while older children may become vital in controlling the outrageous behaviors of their peers. This is always a helping time for everyone.

Structure

Teachers of children with emotional and behavioral disabilities are well aware of the need for structure. Structure provides the children with the security of routine. These expectations are clearly defined and the children work well within them. Too often, the need for structure is misunderstood by teachers. Providing children with ample seatwork, not allowing them to leave their seats, placing their desks along the outside walls of the classroom, demanding silence, and making the children raise their hands for all communication with the teacher are not necessarily examples of structure.

Structure is a pattern of relationships. For classroom purposes, this includes: child to child, child to teacher, child to environment, or teacher to environment. Without the benefit of these components, a full and well-rounded "structure" cannot exist. By restricting children in their ability to communicate with one another and interact with their environment, classroom teachers deny them a powerful opportunity to learn. By providing the children with a framework for self-control, the teacher can allow more classroom freedom and offer the children this opportunity to learn. A peer group management system offers full participation by the children and a more informal classroom atmosphere. The components of a good classroom structure are present and behavior management is placed in the children's hands.

The following material focuses on the actual development of the supportive peer group. It outlines a procedure used to develop this group and suggests possible alternatives to these procedures. Groups generally develop unique styles and operational characteristics, so the precise "plan" must be unique as well. The following procedures can serve as a guide. Any alterations will depend on the nature of the specific classroom group.

Developing the Group

The Problem List

Developing the ability to share ideas and feelings in an easily understood way is often difficult. Preparing ideas takes time, and presenting them demands the use of communication skills that many people lack. Children with emotional and behavioral disabilities are no exception and often have a pronounced inability to communicate with their peers.

The formation of a generic "problem list" facilitates communication and provides a vehicle for organizing and presenting ideas. By sharing common labels of problems, each group member becomes part of the discussion. Each child can identify the problem, associate it to similar problems of his or her own, and provide suggestions and support relative to his or her own needs and experiences.

The length of a classroom problem list is not important, but the child's ability to associate his or her behaviors to this list is. The items on the classroom list should be very general, and carefully selected to service specific classroom needs. If stealing is an issue, then it should be included on the problem list; if not,

then it might better be dealt with under an equally appropriate category—showing disrespect to others.

The problem list can be written before the students arrive in school but it is better to draw on actual classroom experiences. As the list develops, many of the common problems may fall under any of several headings. It doesn't matter what name the problem is given, as long as the student recognizes it. Taking someone's crayons may be seen as stealing, lying or disrespect. The difference is often a result of *when* the child recognizes the problem—before or after someone's feelings were hurt, before or after he got caught, if the crayons were actually stolen or just "borrowed" without permission. Recognition of a problem is far more important than the name given to the problem.

Vorrath and Brendtro's book provides an extensive problem list used with an adolescent population. While its length and scope are appropriate for adolescents, it would be difficult for a young child to deal with such an extensive list of definitions (*Figure 1*). Naming problems would become burdensome.

Figure 1

Problem Peer Culture Problem Solving List

1. **Self-Concept Problem:** Has a low opinion of self, feels inferior. When solved: Is self-confident and cannot easily be made to feel small or put down. Is able to solve his problems and make positive contributions to others. Doesn't feel sorry for self even though he may have shortcomings. Believes he is good enough to be accepted by anybody.
2. **Inconsiderate of Others**: Does things which are damaging to others. When solved: Shows concern for others even if he does not like them or know them well. Tries to help people with problems rather than hurt them or put them down.
3. **Inconsiderate of Self**: Does things which are damaging to self. When solved: Shows concern for self, tries to correct mistakes and improve self. Understands his limitations and is willing to discuss problems. Doesn't hurt self or put self down.
4. **Authority Problem**: Does not want to be managed by anybody. When solved: Shows ability to get along with those in authority. Is able to accept advice and direction from others. Does not try to take advantage of authority figures even if they can be manipulated.
5. **Misleads Others**: Draws others into negative behavior. When solved: Shows responsibility for the effect of his behavior on others who follow him. Does not lead others into negative behavior. Shows concerns and helps rather than taking advantage of them.
6. **Easily Misled**: Is drawn into negative behavior by others. When solved: Seeks out friends who care enough about him not to hurt him. Doesn't blindly follow others to buy friendship. Is strong enough to stand up for himself and makes his own decisions. Doesn't let anyone misuse him.
7. **Aggravates Others**: Treats people in negative, hostile ways. When solved: Gets along well with others. Does not need to get attention by irritating or annoying others. Gets no enjoyment from hurting or harrassing people. Respects others enough not to embarrass, provoke or bully them.
8. **Easily Angered**: Often is irritated, provoked, or has tantrums. When solved: Is not easily frustrated. Knows how to control and channel anger, not letting it control him. Understands the put-down process and has no need to respond to challenges. Can tolerate criticism or even negative behavior from others.
9. **Stealing**: Takes things that belong to others. When solved: Sees stealing as hurting another person. Has no need to be sneaky or to prove himself by stealing. Knows appropriate ways of getting the things he wants. Would not stoop to stealing even if he could get away with it.
10. **Alcohol or Drug Problem**: Misuses substances that could hurt self. When solved: Feels good about self and wouldn't hurt self. Does not need to be high to have friends or enjoy life. Can face his problems without a crutch. Shows concern for others who are hurting themselves by abusing alcohol or drugs.
11. **Lying**: Cannot be trusted to tell the truth. When solved: Is concerned that others trust him. Has strength to face mistakes and failures without trying to cover up. Does not need to lie or twist the truth to impress others. Tells it like it is.
12. **Fronting**: Puts on an act rather than being real. When solved: Is comfortable with people and does not have to keep trying to prove himself. Has no need to act superior, con people, or play the show-off role. Is not afraid of showing his true feelings to others.

The supportive peer group praises children for showing their problems and rewards them for having the strength to change them.

The following problem list was used with youngsters in the third, fourth and fifth grades. It provides alternatives in naming problems, but is short enough not to confuse them. Almost anything happening during a school day that would cause a problem in the normal operation of that day could be identified on this list.

Problem List

1. Hurting problem
2. Lying problem
3. Misleading others
4. Being easily misled
5. Small feelings
6. Aggravation
7. Showing disrespect to self and others

It is important for children to *feel* the significance of this problem list. It is best built as these problems occur. The definitions then become a product of the group, and everyone feels some responsibility for their development.

Hurting Problem

If the supportive peer group is to be the primary behavior management program, then it is necessary to begin as soon as possible in the school year. Generally, one of the first things a teacher does when school begins in the fall is to go over the list of classroom rules. Using the peer group as the management tool, it is not necessary to develop this rule list.

It works well in the beginning stages of group development to have only one rule. That rule is "no hurting." This also provides an opportunity to introduce the first problem on the problem list and work together with the children to establish a common definition of hurting. When the opportunity arises, the teacher can point out situations that lead to possible hurting problems and provide suggestions for alternative behavior. When hurting does occur, the teacher can exploit these times and work the children into a "helping" role. It may be necessary for the teacher to tell the other children what to say or "put words into their mouths," but eventually, the child will pick up on this and be on their way to becoming good, independent, insightful helpers.

While hurting can be seen in a variety of ways, it is necessary to help the children focus their definition on several specific issues. A good definition of hurting singles out three key issues: property, body and feelings. Hurting can then be defined as any activity that does harm to someone's body, property or feelings. This also includes hurting one's own body, property or feelings.

It is often difficult for the children to understand how they can hurt themselves and have this be a problem. The idea of "self respect" is paramount in feeling good about oneself, and this is an excellent first-day discussion starter. It will provide the children with an opportunity to listen to one another, and try to communicate their ideas to the group. This also provides the teacher with the opportunity to assess the communication skills of individuals, pinpoint any significant problem areas that prohibit the group from working well together, and note specific strengths within the group.

With "no hurting" established as the only classroom rule, the teacher can then begin the problem list. This can be a large poster on the wall with its first item being HURTING PROBLEM. It can be explained to the children that additional items will be added to the list as it becomes necessary, and they should focus their attention on monitoring their hurting problems and helping others when a hurting problem occurs.

Lying Problem

Lying problems are a common occurrence. Often times one lie is accompanied by several other lies, and soon trust within the group is erroded. These are difficult times in a group. It is hard to determine when someone isn't telling the truth, and if the lie is not caught, then it becomes easier to lie again. Lying problems breed other problems. Once this trust level breaks down it takes double the energy and time to rebuild.

Small feelings make a child stand out, and he becomes an easy target for classmates' ridicule.

It is possible to be misled without anyone doing the misleading. If another class is working on an activity in the school media center, and a child becomes distracted, leaves his or her assignment, and joins the activity of the other class, then he or she has become misled. This was *his* or *her* problem alone as the other class was doing what they were supposed to be doing. There was no deliberate attempt to mislead.

Small Feelings

Small feelings are easily recognizable and occur frequently in the school day. Small feelings are any feelings or activities that make a person look foolish. This includes such things as pouting, whimpering, whining, feeling sorry for oneself, being crabby, saying nasty words, calling people names, etc. Small feelings, while not generally outrageous or explosive, tend to interfere with the normal operation of the school day. Relationships among the children are strained, school work is incomplete or poorly done, and there is an air of tension in the classroom.

It is important to remind the children that their job in school is to complete their work, develop meaningful relationships with other children, and "get their lives together" enough to return to a regular class. Small feelings are one of the greatest inhibitors when a child is working to regain an acceptable position in the mainstream of the regular school program. These feelings make the child stand out, and the child becomes an easy target for classmates' ridicule.

It is important to help the children understand the distinction between small feelings that interfere with school progress and building relationships with other children, and those feelings that are genuine expressions of emotion. The loss of a pet, saying goodbye to a good friend or classmate, and the divorce of one's parents are examples of emotional situations where crying or feeling sad would be appropriate for almost anyone. However, crying because it is time to check out library books, or spending the day moping because the lunch menu says macaroni and cheese instead of hot dogs, would not be appropriate for even the youngest school-aged child.

Aggravation

An aggravation problem is a small feeling that gets out of hand. It is when the crying becomes sobbing, the naughty words become screaming profanity, or the name calling becomes physical abuse. If the situation requires physical intervention on the part of the teacher or other classmates, the problem would be considered aggravation.

Aggravation is probably the easiest problem to recognize. It is an outrageous behavior that would be recognized by even the untrained observer. For some children, just pointing out the problem is enough to help them pull themselves together. For others, the intervention must be more dramatic. Physically holding the child, instructing the child to sit in a quiet place in the classroom for a period of time, removing the child from the classroom, placing the child into "time out," and even sending the child home are all possible consequences for aggravation problems. Care must be taken in deciding the best method of intervention so as not to remove responsibility for the problem from the child. Regardless of how outrageous the behavior is, the child is responsible for that behavior and must be helped to face the problem as soon after it occurs as possible.

"Time out" rooms or boxes are common in many classrooms and schools for emotionally or behaviorally disabled children. These must be used only as a *last* resort. If the child becomes so out of hand that the teacher or other class members cannot maintain control, then the time out room may be a necessary step. However, it is important to exhaust all other possibilities before using time out. This can become a convenient escape for the child who does not wish to deal with his or her outrageous behaviors. A chair outside the classroom door or a quiet place in the room can be used just as effectively as a time out room, but the child must be weaned from this support quickly. Dealing with problems and developing successful alternatives to outrageous behaviors cannot be done if the child seeks the shelter of the time out room as an answer to his or her problems.

Lying problems occur when someone does not tell the truth. This can be a false statement or not telling the entire truth. One is no worse than the other. They are simply lying problems that need to be worked on.

The most common lying problem is denying ownership of a problem. Denials are the tools of the child who is not ready to deal with his or her problem. It is an easy way to avoid confrontation about an emotionally intense issue. It takes the heat off the sore spot and onto something the child is more equipped to handle. The teacher must be careful to point out denials and explain how they can be used to change the focus of the discussion. The group will readily accept the challenge of ending denials and will press on to the important issues. It is interesting to note that once children learn that having problems and admitting to them doesn't hurt, their denials will decrease rapidly.

Misleading Others

There should always be a clear distinction made between helping and hurting. If someone is not receiving help from other classmates during a problem, then those who do not help are hurting. It should be stressed that the reason they are working on their problems is so they can participate in other important school activities and become more involved with friends outside their immediate classroom. They must help one another and give their support during difficult times. They must become the kind of person that others can trust. The atmosphere of trust is essential in establishing the community necessary to promote positive problem solving.

Vorrath and Brendtro define *misleading others* as drawing others into a negative behavior. It is not only a problem when the child gets him/herself into trouble, but is as much a problem when the child draws others into a problem. The child doing the misleading doesn't necessarily have to participate in the negative behavior. He or she can "set up" another student and then abandon him or her to accept the blame. The set up is often very subtle and can go unnoticed. The abandoned child is defenseless in such situations, as explaining what happened usually sounds like a denial and places blame for a problem on someone else.

When confronting someone about a problem, care must be taken at all times. It is at these times that "tender love" becomes the best approach. It allows the child to talk openly without feeling intimidated. It puts a "soft" seriousness into the discussion without taking out the importance of honesty.

Being Easily Misled

In every group, there is the potential for leadership. This leadership can demonstrate itself in both positive and negative ways. Positive leadership can offer growth and support to the other group members. This cannot happen unless the group is willing to be led. In her book, *Groups in Schools*, Dr. Ruth Newman addresses the issue of leadership. In the chapter on group life, she says:

> A leader, no matter how sure he is that he wants to teach or lead a group in certain ways, will not be able to do so if the group will not let him. "Yes, sure we want to learn," they say—but not this, not that, not if you speak like that, have white skin, have black skin, use that material," etc. If the group, whether for constructive or destructive reasons, doesn't want the leader to "do his thing," it can block or immobilize him.

Leadership, being the critical issue that it is, demands a great deal of time. The teacher must offer the guidance necessary to encourage this leadership. The teacher must also work with the group, developing its ability to accept leadership and follow those that offer constructive leadership.

Being easily misled is a problem demonstrated by a child, or group of children, choosing to follow negative leadership. Being drawn into a fight, joining the class in a work boycott, or participating in a cafeteria food fight are easily recognizable examples of being misled.

Often times when someone is easily misled there is someone deliberately misleading him or her. The set up is a very deliberate attempt at misleading someone. Some members of the class may be susceptible to being misled in this fashion and must be taught to recognize when this is happening to them.

It may be necessary for the teacher to tell children what to say, but eventually children will pick up on this on their way to becoming good, independent, insightful helpers.

Showing Disrespect to Self and Others

This seventh problem on the list could easily be divided into two separate problems if the class situation demands. Disrespect problems tend to be a "catch-all" for general classroom behaviors that annoy teachers and students. Whispering and talking during daily work time, wasting classroom materials, drumming pencils, humming and vocalizing with the intent to deliberately make someone mad, talking back to the teacher, answering one another in a rude way, and refusing to listen when other classmates are offering their help and suggestions are but a few of the many ways of showing disrespect. Belching, passing gas, body odor, not brushing one's teeth, losing daily papers, bad table manners and refusing to eat also fall into this area.

As the children are labeling their problems, it is easy to call everything disrespect. In one sense, much of the inappropriate behavior is disrespectful to themselves or someone else, but often this is just an easy way of not having to give the problem much thought. The children should be encouraged to seek another name for their problem unless it is clearly an issue of disrespect. This problem area could be eliminated or changed if necessary. Vorrath and Brendtro's problem list uses "authority" and "inconsiderate" as alternatives to the word "disrespect."

With the problem list completed and channels of communication beginning to develop, it is important for the teacher to guide the children through their discussion of problems. This is done during a daily group meeting.

The Group Meeting

The group meeting is a time that belongs to the children. Throughout the day as problems have occurred, the children should be reminded that in addition to the immediate discussion, they will have the opportunity to discuss their problems during the group meeting. If the problem is not a serious one, any discussion can be delayed until the group meeting. This is the children's time to work things out under the direct supervision and guidance of the teacher. The group meeting must become the most important part of the school day.

In the group meeting, the children will demonstrate an understanding of their problems. The children receive help from peers, and offer their help and suggestions in return. Participation in activities outside the special class depends on the child's active participation in the group meeting. Group members are responsible for deciding who is ready to participate in gym class or art class with a regular classroom. A positive attitude about the group meeting, a willingness to discuss one's problems, an open mind in accepting the help and suggestions of the other group members, a willingness to offer help and suggestions to other group members, and improvement in general classroom behaviors are all signs of a positive group member who is ready to participate in an activity outside the special class.

A regularly scheduled meeting is a must. For younger children, two short meetings may be necessary. The meeting is best when held toward the end of the school day. Discussion can be focused on the present day, and carrying problems over from one day to the next can be avoided. Care should be taken never to skip a group meeting. It is the most important part of the school day. If a field trip is scheduled, then the meeting should be held during a quiet time immediately after the trip or, if need be, at some time during the trip. If the school day is shortened for parent conferences or holidays, then the meeting should be held before the children go home. Skipping a group meeting gives the impression that the children can do without it. Only as a child prepares to move on to a less restrictive classroom and is being weaned from dependence on the group should a group meeting ever be missed. Even then, some contact with the group is still necessary.

Setting Up the Meeting

Setting up the group meeting is a very simple procedure, and is usually done by one of the children. Chairs are arranged in a circle so that the children sit very close to one another. It is important that the participants pay close attention during the meeting, so the circle must be "tight." The teacher or group leader also sits in the circle, as does any other regular classroom supervisor (student teacher, associate,

Care and help are two key elements in a successful group meeting. Trust cannot be built in an atmosphere of suspicion.

Problems shared in the group are not public announcements. They are private and meant to be shared with other group members.

regular volunteer, etc.). Class visitors are not invited to sit in the group, but may sit just outside the group and listen. The group is very much a "community" and must be kept that way. The specialness of the meeting must be encouraged, and the ommission of outsiders reinforces the importance of the meeting.

During the meeting, the teacher provides guidance and organization. The meeting must be kept moving, and it is up to the teacher to see that things don't bog down. In an effort to distinguish the roles of the children and the teacher, the teacher may wish to sit behind a student's desk. The meeting is to be seen as the students' meeting, and the desk may help make the distinction between the participants and the group leader (teacher).

The group meeting should take place in the same part of the classroom each day. As the group develops, the children will begin looking forward to the meeting, and they're good about cleaning up their activity to prepare for the meeting. The meeting location should be away from distraction and provide a sense of security for the children. Problems shared in the group are not public announcements. They are private and meant to be shared with other group members.

Thinking Through the Day

When the children are seated, the group meeting begins. No one is to leave until the meeting is completed. The age and maturity of the children will influence how they think through their day. It is usually necessary to have them close their eyes as the group leader talks them through the day. They are asked to think carefully about each segment of the school day and try to recall any special problems they may have had and name them using the "problems list." This usually takes only a few minutes and, after a time, the children will naturally sit down and do this by themselves.

Problem Session

The problem session is the part of the group meeting when the children tell other group members about any problems they have had during the day. The group leader should establish a routine for the problem session. Beginning with a child sitting to either side of the leader and moving around the group is a very simple procedure.

The child must be able to tell the group the name of each problem and explain what happened. The child should also be able to tell the other group members any alternatives to the problem behavior. It is important when telling a problem that no one else's name is mentioned unless the child is telling of someone he or she misled. If someone else is involved in the problem, that person will have a turn later in the meeting.

The children must learn that *why* is not as important as *what*. If John hit Thomas because Thomas called him a name, the issue for John is hitting (hurting or aggravation). The issue for Thomas is name calling. John and Thomas can work on building their relationship later in the meeting. Blaming others for one's problems is called "shifting the weight," and will be discussed later.

It is often necessary to limit the number of problems that any one student can talk about during a group meeting. For some children with many problems, it can become an endless list. In such a case, the problems that were most significant to the child should be mentioned. Limiting the number of problems to three for each session is a good practice.

Care and *help* are two key elements in a successful group meeting. Talking about problems must become a helpful process, not a tattle-tale session. The children come together to share their strengths and weaknesses and draw support from their friends. Trust cannot be built in an atmosphere of suspicion.

When a child is unable to identify any problems during the problem session, the other group members may help. If this happens, the group leader may wish to stop having the children remind one another of problems or limit the number of times each child can help. The group leader must help the children focus on the problem, not the number of problems.

For some children, talking with the group will be very difficult. If a child is unable to talk about his or her problems during the formative stages of the group meetings, the teacher needs to offer encouragement and possibly name the problems for the child. If this persists, the child should be asked to sit outside the group

and participate only by listening. What to do with children that are asked to leave the group meeting will also be discussed later.

The problem session is a very good time to stress the importance of good listening skills. The children should pay close attention to each other. The ability to give genuine help and support can only come through careful listening. It is a very interesting activity to video-tape a group meeting and have the children tally the number of times they were not paying close attention. They will be very surprised at themselves and amazed when identifying their specific characteristics (twisting hair, swinging feet, wringing hands, turning face away from the speaker, etc.). Repeating this activity every so often enables both the teacher and the students to note improvements and focus on behaviors that still need improvement.

Focusing the Meeting

Discussion will develop as the children share their problems with the group. When the problem session is over, the leader or the group decides if there is a problem mentioned that needs special attention. The group will then focus the discussion on the individual having the problem. This is the time for a serious look at the events that surrounded the problem.

The group members usually carry this part of the meeting. They offer suggestions to the individual that had the problem. The discussion is guided by the group leader, but must be regulated by the group. Free exchange of ideas is important. Too much control will interfere with the generation of ideas and inhibit participation and communication.

The focus of the meeting can be a very intense experience. Tempers may flare, tears may fall, or the child may choose not to say anything. Regardless of how mad the other group members may become during this time, the group leader must keep things pulled together and moving in a supportive direction. This is a helping time for the children, and the teacher must help them discover how they can be tender but firm. The expectations they set for one another will yield far greater results than any the teacher might get.

Tears are not necessarily a sign of weakness or small feelings. During this part of the group meeting the tears may be those of relief, sorrow or shame. The children must be supported when they begin to see how they have hurt themselves or other members of the class. Their tears must be accepted as an indication of genuine feelings of care.

There will be times when it is not necessary to focus the meeting. This is a good time to talk about general classroom concerns: lunchroom behavior, care of classroom games, new building procedures, field trip expectations, etc.

Follow-up Activities

After the meeting has been focused and the issues resolved, it is helpful to have the children participate in a brief follow-up activity before leaving the group meeting. These activities need not be time consuming or complicated, but should serve to pull things together for the group and finish the meeting on a positive note. Having the children tell the most important thing that happened to them during the day, telling one good thing about someone else in the group, sharing something they are proud of, or simply expressing their feelings about the meeting are all good ways to end a group meeting.

The group leader may wish to do a short socio-gram with the group. Having the children indicate who is the best helper, who they would like to sit by, who they would elect the class president, etc., tells the teacher a lot about leadership in the group.

Simple checklists, fill-in-the-blank surveys and other effective measurement instruments provide the children with variety and give the teacher valuable information about the children and the group.

If the group meeting is short, the teacher may wish to have a more lengthy activity. Guidance filmstrips or movies are good discussion starters. This is also a good time to talk about personal hygiene and good grooming. The group leader may wish to keep a checklist invoiving such things as brushing teeth, combing hair, taking a bath, etc. These can then be discussed during the group meeting the following day. Children that have poor health habits are showing disrespect to themselves and the people around them. For children, looking good is an important part of feeling good.

Free exchange of ideas is important. Too much control will interfere with the generation of ideas and inhibit communication.

These children, like all children, share a need to learn. Their play is their work, and they build bridges to more sophisticated learning.

Being Removed from the Group Meeting

The group meeting must remain the most important part of the children's day. They must show respect throughout the meeting. They must listen carefully, offer suggestions to the other children, and be truthful and fair when presenting their problems. If this does not happen, the child who has shown disrespect to the group must be asked to leave the group meeting and sit in a chair just outside the circle. This can be done by the group leader or the children in the group.

While sitting outside the group, the child must not participate in the group discussion. He or she should sit quietly and listen. The children should be instructed to ignore any foolish behavior as the group continues. When the group meeting is over, the children may wish to confront this individual about his or her behavior.

The child who has been asked to leave the group meeting can only return to the group when all of the other group members agree. The child must consult with them individually to talk about getting back into the meeting and be able to present reasons for return. If any member disagrees, the individual must remain outside the group.

The group leader must be aware of the group members' reasons for refusing to allow the child back into the group meeting. If the leader feels it is necessary, he or she can overrule the decision of the group. It is important to explain why the group's decision has been reversed.

As the group develops, it becomes increasingly important for the children to participate in the meetings. They develop feelings of responsibility to themselves and the other members. They feel badly about being asked to leave and are usually reinstated within a day or two. Seeing other group members progress and move into special activities in the regular school program is a powerful motivation to return to the group and begin working on problems.

Keeping a Journal

Keeping a journal with the children is a good way for them to record their daily activities. In this journal, they should write about important things that happened during their day, including any problems they had. In this way they can go back through their journal and review a personal account of their day, week or month. It is their record of any recurring problems or special events.

Provide time for the children to write in their journals immediately after group meeting, while everything is fresh in their minds. They can also include any suggestions from the group they felt were important or useful (See *Figure 2*). It is also interesting to have the children draw a picture to accompany the journal entry.

Record Keeping

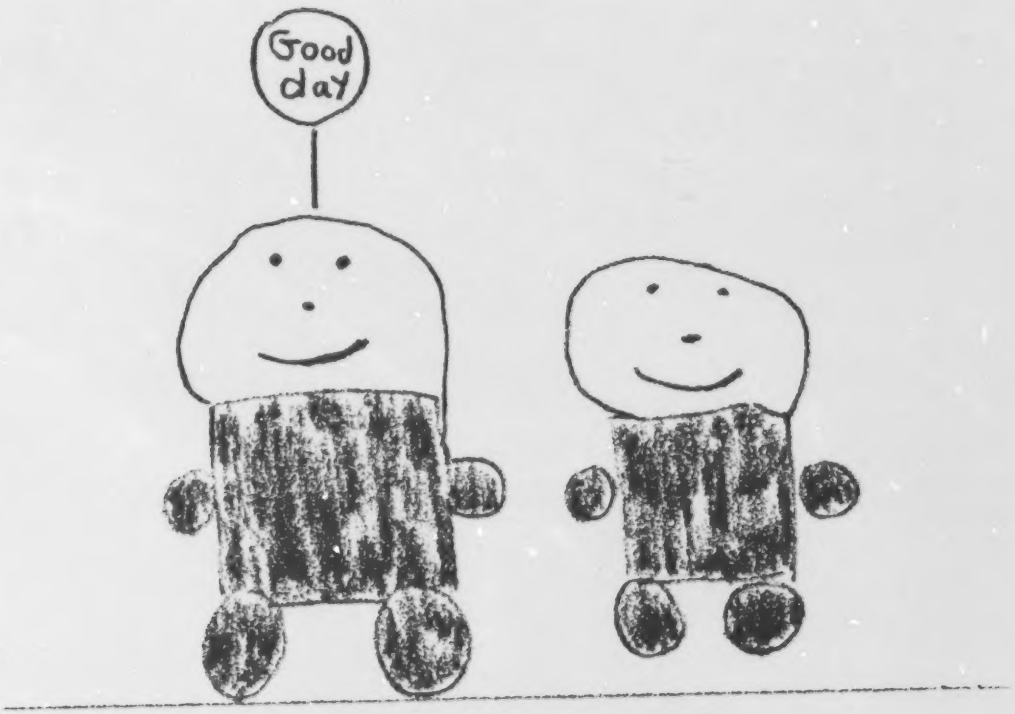
Documentation of behavior change is always a necessary part of the special child's evaluation program. While behavior change is often visible, it is necessary to illustrate this change. The documentation facilitates communication between the teacher, parent and child. With successful integration as the goal, documentation is necessary to show the child is readying for this experience.

The documentation program must be manageable and produce the necessary information. It must help the teacher in pinpointing specific problems and in showing improvement in these behaviors. This may be done through informal surveys and questionnaires or by teacher observation and data keeping. Many excellent behavior rating scales (Sodac, 1979) and attitude surveys are also available. Any of the following will serve the classroom teacher well:

1. Deveraux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale
2. Preschool and Primary Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Control Scale
3. Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale
4. Burke's Behavior Rating Scale

Figure 2

Journal Entry



April 21, 1980
I had a good day. I didnt have no problems. I did good at music and math. Im gona eat lunch with Mr Perchanbrider's class tomarrow. Im gona ignor people when they call me names. Im very nerves about tomorrow.

Children in special classes usually arrive with an ample cumulative folder. Report cards, psychological reports, anecdotal records, and similar materials can provide an extensive list of interesting behaviors and problems. Parents can also provide input on specific school or home related problems.

Figure 3 shows a sample list drawn from cumulative records. This is a good list to use when gathering data during the first weeks of school. By using a new sheet daily and simply making a check each time the behavior is identified, a pattern will develop showing which behaviors are most pronounced. These results can be shared during the group meeting, calling the group's attention to each student's specific problems.

Figure 3

Problem Behavior List

Noncompliance
Peer conflict
Adult conflict
Appears restless
Distracted easily
Tunes into distant noise
Fascination with orange (repeated interest)
Fascination with spinning objects
Talk of game shows
Incomplete assignment
Upset during activity change
Loose associations in speech
Perseverates on bizzare subject matter

Figure 4 shows a more refined list. This list contains the most significant items from the previous list. Also included on this list are "helping others" and "positive group member." In the initial stages of group development, it is important to focus the children's attention on helping one another. Recording the frequency of "helping" reinforces its importance and aids in focusing group leadership. Being a "positive group member" is each student's goal, and all "positive" behaviors should be recognized daily.

Figure 5 is an example of the list used after the group meetings have matured and the problem list has been established. It is simply a problem list for each child in the group. As the problem sessions develop, a record is kept of the weekly problems of each child. This list can be shared daily before the group meeting begins, or can be reviewed each Friday. Patterns develop quickly, and the group soon becomes aware of each child's specific problem areas.

The children can be encouraged to keep behavior checklists at home. Hanging a list on the refrigerator encourages family participation in the discussion of the child's problems. Keeping a list by the child's bed encourages the child to review each day before falling asleep.

Group Restrictions

Creating a supportive, peer-oriented environment can eliminate many routine discipline problems. With the children monitoring themselves and one another, the teacher can direct attention to the academic needs of the children. However, there are no guarantees that problems will not arise.

When daily "problems" fail to decrease (*Figure 5*), a student is placed on group restriction. Restriction is used only when problem behaviors persist. It should not become a matter of routine. Repeated use of restriction will diminish its significance. The group is responsible for deciding if a student is placed on restriction and for any changes in the classroom arrangement.

A study carrel is substituted for the student's desk, and he or she is moved a short distance away from the group. The child is required to stay in his or her seat at all times. If Janet leaves the room for lunch, to go to the bathroom, or to check out books from the school library, she must have another group member holding her hand at all times. Field trips, swimming lessons, and leaving the building at the end of the school day are no exception. If the student "needs" to have others regulate his or her behavior, then passing from the locker room to the swimming pool is just as important as going to the lunchroom. The responsibility of caring for this student can be shared by all group members. The ability to avoid being misled is an important prerequisite.

Figure 4

Behavior Checklist II

Tommy

Wasting Time							
"Attitudes" about work							
Following negatively							
Helping others							
Positive group member							

Figure 5

Behavior Checklist III

Tommy

Hurting							
Lying							
Misleading others							
Being easily misled							
Small feelings							
Aggravation							
Showing disrespect							

If a disruptive child on group restriction presents a problem for the group member who must look after him or her, the child can be placed under the supervision of two group members. The study carrel is moved to another part of the classroom, and he or she cannot leave the classroom without two group members, one holding each hand.

In addition to classroom restrictions (both for one and two group member supervision), the student is restricted at recess. He or she must play in a specific area outlined by the teacher. Others may join the child there, but he or she cannot leave the area. Further restriction requires teacher supervision and a home visit, if necessary.

When the group decides a child is ready to come off the restrictive status, he or she returns to original status in the group. It is not necessary to work back into the group by passing through less restrictive situations.

Rearranging the seating for the restricted child is the group's responsibility. Hand shakes and pats on the back are in order for the child who has worked hard and is ready to return to regular group member status. The student placed in group restriction must still participate in group meetings unless he or she has also been asked to leave the meetings.

The Games Children Play

As the group process develops, so will the "games" played by the children. The teacher and the group members must become aware of these games as they interfere with the progress of the group.

The "but game" is a recurring theme in all of our lives. "Yes, I did that, but.....!" Teachers have heard this one a million times. The children use it as an excuse for their problems, but have difficulty finding anyone who will buy it. When talking about problems, the children must remember to speak only of their participation in the problem. Excuses are not acceptable answers when a problem has been identified. If there has been a problem, then someone must accept ownership of that problem.

The most effective way to deal with the "but game" is to stop the discussion and make the child restate the problem. Shifting the weight of the problem off himself or herself places the blame on someone else, which can easily become a serious hurting problem.

The children and the teacher must keep careful watch for the "get back" game. Playing the "get back" game can do serious damage to the group. Counting problems to make another group member look bad, digging up insignificant problems for other group members, setting up other group members for problems, and tattling are easily recognizable examples of the "get back" game.

By constantly reinforcing the need to "help" one another, the group leader can avoid serious problems with this game. Problem session can easily become a playground for the "get back" artist. It may be necessary for the group leader to stop the children from reminding one another of problems if the problem session becomes burdened with the "get back" game.

Parental Involvement

While parental involvement is encouraged in many schools, and the benefits to emotionally and behaviorally disabled children are numerous, involvement is often difficult to achieve. The increasing number of working parents and single parent families makes time valuable. Regularly scheduled conferences and special education staffings are about as much in-school time as many parents can afford.

Because of the difficulty in getting parents into the school, teachers must devise other ways to promote their involvement. Communicating program goals to parents and enlisting their support in using this program will go far in encouraging the child.

Through weekly or monthly newsletters, parent/teacher conferences, small group meetings or home visits by the teacher, materials and information about the peer group program and its goals can be given to the parents. The language of the problem list will gradually creep into the child's vocabulary and inevitably enter family discussion.

Communication with other teachers in the school will also help develop a strong program. An informational meeting to brief the school staff will facilitate their understanding of the peer group program and aid in their communication with the children. Many of the children will eventually be participating in regular school activities, making communication with teachers essential. A brief activity report provided by the special education teacher enables the classroom teacher to communicate efficiently about the child's participation in his or her classroom. This report can then be used as direct feedback during the group meeting.

The Joyful Community

In addition to developing group meetings and encouraging strength and support among the children, the teacher must be concerned with the entire classroom atmosphere. It is not enough to have a well-developed peer group, or stimulating academic involvement. These elements must work together in establishing a controlled, yet productive environment.

A pervasive feeling of joy must surround the children throughout their school experiences. The classroom, the teacher, and more important, the rest of the school must let these children know they are welcome. The child's school world must say, "Hey, you're great. It's good to have you with us." While many schools send these important messages to their students, care must be taken with special children to be sure they receive the message. They must be embraced with the spirit of a truly caring community.

These special children, like all children, share a need to learn. Their play is their work, and they build bridges to more sophisticated learning. However, their ability to construct these bridges is often in need of additional reinforcement from those around them.

Teacher training programs for individuals preparing to work with behaviorally or emotionally disabled children often encourage teachers to look seriously at the classroom environment. An issue addressed in this analysis is the distractibility of such children and the need for the environment to accommodate this. The materials used for display on bulletin boards and throughout the classroom must be chosen carefully. Unfortunately, this is often misinterpreted as a need for no displays. The emotional disabilities classroom is often stripped of display items and is without bulletin boards. The student desks are placed far apart, and the teacher's desk faces the class. An emotional disabilities classroom may need a quiet area, free from distraction, for work or instruction. It may need a study carrel or two for the child needing reduced visual stimulation. But, children will not feel good about their work without display for recognition. Those needing socialization skills will not develop them if they are not allowed to work with others.

The classroom must reflect what is happening there. Display items, motivational materials and classroom arrangement must reflect trust and the expectation the teacher has for the children. Children with problems developing relationships with classmates must have the opportunity to sit by and work with their classmates. They must be encouraged and supported throughout this process and be provided every opportunity to learn from these experiences.

Isolation in a school can be as deadly as isolation in the classroom. Placing special education classrooms in unused buildings away from other children, placing these classrooms in portable units somewhere out of sight on the school grounds, and using the two vacant classrooms at the end of the hall are all frequent remedies to the problem of "Now that we have them, what do we do with them?" Classrooms must be located where there is every opportunity for practice. These children must be aware of their surroundings and be visible to those who surround them. The school is their practice field. The children can be afforded safety in their classroom and provided the opportunity for experimentation in the mainstream of the school setting. Experimentation in "normalcy" works best when children are surrounded by peers who care and are ready to help and offer their encouragement.

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Teaching Social Skills to Behaviorally Disordered Youth

by Ellen McGinnis

Portions of this chapter are based on the work of McGinnis, E. and Sauerbry, L. "A Modified Approach to Skillstreaming" (unpublished paper), 1981; and McGinnis, E., Sauerbry, L. and Nichols, P. "Teaching Social Skills: A "Skillstreaming" Plan for Elementary-Age Behaviorally Disordered Children." Teaching Exceptional Children, (in press).

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A new philosophy is beginning to take hold in the field of behavioral disorders. Educators are recognizing that teaching academic competencies and enforcing external limits on a student's behavior are not enough to provide for successful reintegration into the mainstream school environment. Furthermore, these traditional methods alone are not enough to prepare behaviorally disordered students with the skills they need to cope with the social and behavioral demands of the world outside the school setting.

Traditionally, special classrooms for behaviorally disordered youth have placed an emphasis on informing the student that certain behaviors will not be tolerated in the school setting. This is achieved by implementing planned consequences for inappropriate ways of dealing with stress and conflict situations. While this is a vital role of the special classroom, it must not be the end of the behavioral intervention. Additional measures must be taken to provide students not only with the knowledge of *what not to do*, but also with the knowledge of *what to do*.

An important assumption made in this philosophy is that students do not make a conscious choice to misbehave or to deal with a problem in a socially unacceptable manner. The belief is that the majority of behaviorally disordered youngsters have not learned the necessary prosocial behavior. Learning, in this sense, means that the student is actually able to act in a prosocial manner when the situation calls for the behavior.

Many times, students can verbalize a variety of prosocial alternatives. For example, when Tricia reacts with physical aggression when tormented by a peer, it is likely that she will be able to state ways she could have dealt with this in a nondestructive way. However, when a similar situation occurs, even though Tricia "knows" what she should do (e.g., ignore her tormentor), she just can't seem to react in this manner. The tendency on our part, then, is to make the assumption that Tricia has learned the prosocial skill and could have ignored her tormenter. . .if only she wanted to. Verbalizing prosocial alternatives, however, is very different from actually being able to carry out the action itself.

Why do some children learn acceptable social behavior while others do not? An empirical answer to this question is not known. However, the following factors may contribute to our understanding.

Cox and Gunn (1980) point out three reasons individuals fail to respond appropriately to social situations. First, a student may not have the knowledge of the desirable behavior within a given context. Such a student, for instance, may not have attended to the modeling of the desirable behavior, or may not have had appropriate models available. On the other hand, a student may have attended to an appropriate model, but was unable to interpret the behavior in the context of the situation. This can be referred to as a lack of behavioral flexibility, or the inability to adjust one's behavior to a variety of different situations, people or settings. For example, a student may request help from a peer in a socially acceptable manner. However, the student must also learn when it is acceptable to request this assistance (i.e. it may be appropriate during independent seat work, but unacceptable during a test or a class discussion).

A second explanation offered by Cox and Gunn is that the student lacks practice of the prosocial behavior. A common example of this is a child who is aware that "thank you" is a polite thing to say when someone does a favor for him or her; however, the child is not in the habit of responding in this way. In this case, the student has not practiced the skill to the point that it has become a part of his or her behavioral repertoire.

A third explanation provided by Cox and Gunn of why a student does not perform in socially acceptable ways is that the individual's emotional responses inhibit the performance of the behaviors. Anxiety, fear, anger or defensiveness may prevent the student from thinking and responding beyond that initial emotion.

The special classroom must provide students not only with the knowledge of what not to do, but also with the knowledge of what to do. Constructive, socially acceptable ways of dealing with problems can result from direct and systematic teaching.

Still another factor to consider is that students may be reinforced for the undesirable behavior and not adequately reinforced for that which is prosocial. Too frequently the inappropriate behavior is the one that receives reinforcement from both peers and adults. For instance, a young child may get attention much more quickly by whining than by quietly expressing his or her wants. Likewise, it may be easy for a teacher to inadvertently ignore a young student's request for help; but who can ignore a full-blown temper tantrum?

Research indicates that social skills deficits in children are related to school maladjustment (Gronlund and Anderson, 1963), delinquency (Roff, Sells and Golden, 1972), and peer rejection (Quay, 1978). Children with poor interpersonal skills, when compared to their socially competent peers, have also been found at high risk for adjustment problems in adulthood (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo and Trost, 1973).

Recent studies suggest that social skills training with behaviorally disordered students does increase their prosocial responding (LaNunziata, Hill and Krause, 1981; Warrenfeltz, Kelly, Salzberg, Beegle, Levy, Adams and Crouse, 1981). Instruction in this area has increased peer acceptance of socially isolated children (Oden and Asher, 1977). Furthermore, instruction in interpersonal or social skills for behaviorally disordered youth is implied in the Public Law 94-142 definition of serious emotional disturbance (1975) and is suggested as a way of facilitating successful mainstreaming of handicapped children (Gresham, 1982).

The intervention described in this chapter provides elementary and secondary teachers with a planned, direct and systematic way of teaching prosocial behaviors to behaviorally disordered students. This approach considers various explanations of why children fail to learn acceptable social skills, and assumes that students may be able to verbalize prosocial choices but are unable to act on these choices. It also assumes that constructive, socially acceptable ways of dealing with problems can result from direct and systematic teaching.

The Assessment Process

Assessing social skills involves a pre-teaching assessment phase (selection of the students and the specific skills for instruction) and a post-teaching assessment phase, including post-teaching evaluation and assessment of skill maintenance and generalization. Following is a discussion of and suggested techniques for this process.

Pre-Teaching Assessment: Phase I

Before beginning social skills instruction, students in need of direct intervention and the specific social skills these students need are selected.

Selecting the Students

Several techniques are useful in selecting students who need direct instruction in social skills. The process most frequently suggested is a combination of sociometric information, teacher ratings and behavioral observations (Gresham, 1983). Input from parents and the target children themselves can also assist in making this determination.

Peer Reporting. This is one method of screening children with interpersonal and social difficulties. Children who demonstrate inappropriate social behaviors may also be those who lack acceptance by their peers (Barclay, 1966; Guinouard and Rychlak, 1962). A review of studies by Rathjen (1980) suggests that friendliness, social participation and outgoing behavior are characteristics of acceptance by peers, while aggressive behavior is associated with peer rejection. In addition, information gained from peer ratings is the best predictor of later socioemotional adjustment (Barclay, 1966; Rolf, 1976).

For classroom teachers, sociometric information can point out students who are experiencing difficulties in positive social interaction with other children. This strategy may confirm the teacher's observations of a student who is aggressive in dealing with problems, for example. However, sociometric information may also help to identify a student who is withdrawn and easily overlooked as a potential target for instruction.

Sociometric techniques were first developed by Moreno (1934), who used peer nominations to assess friendship skills. Peer rating, another sociometric technique, is believed to assess an individual's overall peer acceptance or likeability (Gresham, 1981c).

The peer nomination method includes instructing students to list a number of classmates according to a

specific criteria (i.e. who they would most like to play with, work with, sit next to; or best friends, etc.). Students may also be instructed to list the classmates they would least like to be associated with, in order to assess the students who appear to lack friendship skills. The children who are neither chosen as friends nor rejected may tend to be socially isolated.

The technique of peer rating involves rating each student on a given scale (i.e. a lot, sometimes, not at all) according to a selected criteria, such as how much they like to play with each classmate (Oden and Asher, 1977). This technique indicates students who are rejected by peers, as well as those who appear to be accepted.

Sociometric techniques provide an idea of a child's peer relationships and are a useful screening tool. However, this strategy provides little information about the child's specific problem areas (Gresham, 1981c). Therefore, additional assessment is required.

Teacher and Parent Reports. Reports from the student's parents and teachers are valuable sources of information for selecting students for social skills intervention. Ask questions such as: "Does the child comply with requests? If not, how does he or she respond? Does the child have friends in the neighborhood and at school? How does the child deal with interpersonal relationships and feelings like anger and frustration?" Answers to such questions can indicate which children are experiencing difficulty with social behaviors outside the academic learning setting.

Teacher rating appears to be a valid screening measure (Gresham, 1981a) and structured rating scales have frequently been used to screen behaviorally disordered or conduct disordered children from their normal peers (Bower, 1960; Nelson, 1971). Hutton and Roberts (1982) also found a close relationship between peer nomination and teacher ratings in identifying nonhandicapped students with behavior difficulties. Use of a structured rating scale, such as the *Social Behavior Assessment* (Stephens, 1978) is a useful method of gaining this necessary teacher input.

Direct Observation. Direct, systematic observation is a valuable technique when combined with other methods of social skills assessment. Such observations are also useful for teachers, who will need baseline data before implementing the social skills intervention. Systematic observation is a way to identify behavioral changes following intervention, monitor social behavior, and determine antecedents and consequences surrounding the specific behavior (Gresham, 1981b).

Because social skills can vary under different conditions (Cartledge and Milburn, 1980), several observations across a variety of school settings will provide the most useful information regarding how the target child's social interaction differs from his or her peers. *Figure 1* is an example of an observation technique specifically for coding children's interaction. For additional information on systematic observations refer to Walker (1979).

(1) The teacher or observer selects one student to observe for a specified time period (15 to 20 minutes). Suggested social settings are the school cafeteria and playground as well as unstructured and structured classroom activities;

(2) After 10 seconds, the observer makes a tally mark if the target child interacts positively or negatively with a teacher or a peer, or marks if no interaction is observed;

(3) On the alternative 10 second interval, the observer marks the interaction of a peer in the same manner as described above;

(4) The observer again marks the target child's interaction during the next 10 second interval;

(5) Another peer is observed and charted during the subsequent 10 second interval;

(6) This procedure continues, alternating observation of the target child and each peer who participates in the activity.

Skills that benefit the child in school may be contradictory to expectations in the home. Parental information ensures appropriate emphasis on environments where a skill can be most useful.

Figure 1
Interaction Observation
Tally Sheet

Student: _____ Date:

Situation or Activity: _____

Time Observed: _____

	Positive		*Negative*		*No Interaction*
	Peer	*Teacher*	*Peer*	*Teacher*	
Student					
Peer Composite					

Comments:

Selecting the Skills

Selecting skills that are important to other persons in the student's environment will assist in others' acceptance of the target student. Several studies indicate that behaviors such as smiling at the teacher, task completion, following directions, volunteering answers, and complying with requests correlate with academic success. In general, children exhibiting these prosocial behaviors receive the most positive attention from teachers (Cartledge and Milburn, 1980; Gresham, 1982). Literature also suggests that the following skills increase a student's acceptance by peers: smiling, greeting others, joining in a peer activity, physical appearance, complimenting others, sharing and cooperating, making invitations to others and carrying on a conversation (Mesibov and LaGreca, 1981).

It is also important to discuss areas of need with the child's parents. Skills that benefit the child in the school setting may, in fact, be contradictory to expectations in the child's home and neighborhood environments. For example, a young child who attempts to discuss a problem with an out-of-control parent or older child in the home or neighborhood, may be better off to physically leave the situation than to attempt a constructive outcome at that time. Parental information is therefore necessary to ensure that appropriate emphasis is placed on the environments where a particular skill can be most useful.

Instruction in skills valued by the child's parents, teachers and peers also increases the likelihood that positive reinforcement will be given to the student in the natural environment. This reinforcement may help maintain use of the skill following the actual teaching (Stokes and Baer, 1977).

Although competence in the above social skills may serve to meet the social expectations of others, another goal of social skills instruction is to meet the personal development needs of students themselves (Rathjen, 1980). Once familiar with structured learning and specific examples of social skills, most students will share problems they are experiencing. Teaching students skills that provide a positive alternative for dealing with their immediate needs will increase their desire to master a given skill. Direct student input through a checklist or interview can provide information about the skills they feel are most useful.

The social skills checklist (*Figure 2*) for elementary age students provides a way to identify a student's specific needs. It is also a method of recording social difficulties observed by the teacher. Such a checklist can be modified to gain information from the students themselves. Refer to Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980) for a similiar checklist for rating adolescent students.

Figure 2

Elementary Social Skills Checklist

Student _____

Date _____

Circle 1 if the student is *never* good at using the skill.
Circle 2 if the student is *seldom* good at using the skill.
Circle 3 if the student is *sometimes* good at using the skill.
Circle 4 if the student is *almost always* good at using the skill.

Group I: Introductory Social Skills

1. Listening: Does the student appear to listen when someone is speaking and make an effort to understand what is said?
   a) In a one-to-one setting? 1 2 3 4
   b) In a small group setting? 1 2 3 4
   c) In a large group setting? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

2. Asking for Help: Does the student decide when he/she needs assistance and ask for this help in a pleasant manner? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

3. Saying Thank You: Does the student tell others he/she appreciates help given, favors; etc? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

4. Beginning a Conversation: Does the student know how and when to begin a conversation with another person? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

5. Asking a Question: Does the student know how and when to ask a question of another person (i.e. how to ask and convey what he/she means)? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

6. Asking a Favor: Does the student know how to ask a favor of another person in a pleasant manner? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

7. Following Instructions: Does the student understand instructions and follow them?
   a) Related to academic task? 1 2 3 4
   b) In the general classroom environment? 1 2 3 4
   c) In social situations? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

8. Joining In: Does the student know and practice acceptable ways of joining an ongoing activity or group?
   a) In the classroom? 1 2 3 4
   b) In social settings (i.e. the playground?) 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

9. Giving a Compliment: Does the student tell others that he/she likes something about them or what they have done? 1 2 3 4

   Problem Situation: _____

10. Accepting a Compliment: Does the student accept these comments given by adults or his/her peers in a friendly way? 1 2 3 4

    Problem Situation: _____

Group II: Skills for Dealing with Feelings

11. Apologizing: Does the student tell others he/she is sorry for doing something in a sincere manner? 1 2 3 4

    Problem Situation: _____

12. Knowing own Feelings: Does the student identify feelings he/she is experiencing? 1 2 3 4

    Problem Situation: _____

13. Express Own Feelings: Does the student express his/her feelings in acceptable ways? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

14. Recognizing/Understanding Other's Feelings: Does the student try to figure out how others are feeling in acceptable ways? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

15. Dealing With Own Anger: Does the student know ways to express his/her anger in acceptable ways? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

16. Dealing With Other's Anger: Does the student try to understand another's anger without getting angry himself/herself? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

17. Expressing Affection: Does the student let others know he/she cares about them in an acceptable manner? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

18. Dealing with Fear: Does the student know why he/she is afraid and know strategies to reduce this fear? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

19. Asking Permission: Does the student know when and how to ask if he/she may do something? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

20. Sharing: Is the student agreeable to sharing things with others or offer reasons why he/she cannot in an acceptable manner? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

21. Helping Others: Can the student recognize when someone needs or wants assistance and offer this help? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

22. Using Self Control: Does the student know and practice strategies to control his/her temper or excitement? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

23. Responding to Teasing: Does the student deal with being teased in ways which allow him/her to remain in control? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

24. Avoiding Trouble: Does the student stay away from situations which may get him/her into trouble? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

25. Staying Out of Fights: Does the student know of and practice other ways of handling difficult situations? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

26. Making a Complaint: Does the student know how to say that he/she disagrees in acceptable ways? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

27. Answering a Complaint: Is the student willing to arrive at a fair solution to someone's justified complaint? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

28. Dealing with Losing: Does the student accept losing at a game or prize without becoming upset or angry? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

29. Showing Sportsmanship: Does the student express a sincere compliment to others about how they played the game? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

30. Dealing with Being Left Out: Does the student deal with being left out of an activity without losing control? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

31. Dealing with Embarrassment: Does the student know of things to do that help him/her feel less embarrassed or self-conscious? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

32. Responding to Persuasion: Does the student consider the consequence of what may happen if he/she goes along with what another is asking him/her to do? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

33. Reacting to Failure: Does the student figure out the reason(s) for his/her failure, and how he/she can be more successful the next time? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

34. Dealing with an Accusation: Does the student know ways to deal with being accused of something?
a) When he/she is falsely accused? 1 2 3 4
b) When he/she is justifiably accused? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

35. Dealing with Group Pressure: Does the student decide what he/she wants to do when others pressure him/her to do something else? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

36. Deciding on Something to Do: Does the student find something to do when he/she has free time? 1 2 3 4

Problem Situation: _____

Note This checklist is a Modification of the "Structured Learning Skills Checklist" presented in *Skillstreaming the Adolescent*.

Developing an Instructional Plan

Following the selection of the students and defining each student's skill needs (i.e. elementary skills checklist) the student's name and rating on each skill is entered on the Skills Grouping Chart (*Figure* 3). This procedure records the needs of individual students, and guides the teacher in selecting skills for instruction. Students who receive low ratings on similar skills should be grouped together for instruction.

For use in the special classroom, the Skills Grouping Chart gives a profile of the class as a whole. Skills for instruction are selected according to the needs of the majority of the students. Students who appear proficient in the skill selected for instruction can assist in modeling displays and act as helpers for the rest of the group (i.e. providing suggestions for improvement on skill performance or as a co-actor) (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980).

Time for Instruction

Students should be instructed in social skills for 20 to 30 minutes at the elementary level, and from 30 to 45 minutes at the secondary level, at least three times per week. It is suggested that the remaining two days be set aside for work on related skills such as relaxation training, communication skills and identifying feelings. At the end of each school day, an additional 10 minutes should allow students to chart the skills they have practiced that day (Daily Self-Report Chart).

Establishing Group Rules

Specific behavioral rules should be decided on before actually implementing the social skills teaching session. Rules may include: wait until another person has finished talking before you begin to speak; remember to leave toys and other objects at your desk; etc. Four or five rules are a workable number to begin with.

Rules like these are needed in early stages of group work and can prevent many behavioral difficulties. Allowing the group to establish these rules, with teacher guidance, encourages the students' commitment to abide by these rules. Students should also be reinforced for following the rules during the teaching sessions.

Introducing Skills

A new skill, if it is one of the less complicated ones such as "listening" or "how to ask a question," can be introduced every week or two. However, as overlearning is of critical importance with this technique (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980), a new skill should be introduced only when the students can recall the steps of the past skill and have shown generalization outside the group teaching setting. When more complicated skills are introduced, three weeks or longer can be spent on one skill. Periodic review will reinforce previously learned skills and encourage their use in new situations, provide systematic fading of the training for generalization (Buckley and Walker, 1978), and prevent student boredom from concentration on only one skill at a time.

Level of Instructional Support

Children may fail to learn appropriate social behaviors for a variety of reasons. Structured learning is appropriate no matter why the child has not learned these behaviors. The value of social skills teaching is enhanced, however, when additional emphasis can be placed on specific areas of need. For example, focus for one child may be on providing meaningful reinforcement for skill performance. Another child may need to be told when to use the skill, and then be reinforced for the behavior. Still another youngster may need to be prompted through each skill step before the behavior can be learned. *Figure 4* suggests questions to be asked regarding the child's level of social behavior and subsequent interventions to be used in planning, reinforcing and modifying the social skills instruction for individual students.

Reinforcement System

Tokens, always paired with verbal praise statements, can be given on an intermittent basis. These tokens, such as SCAMO's (Showing Caring About Myself and Others), are earned for following the general group rules, role playing and participation, practicing previously learned skills in the group setting and throughout the school day, and for completing homework assignments.

Figure 3

Elementary Social Skills Group Chart

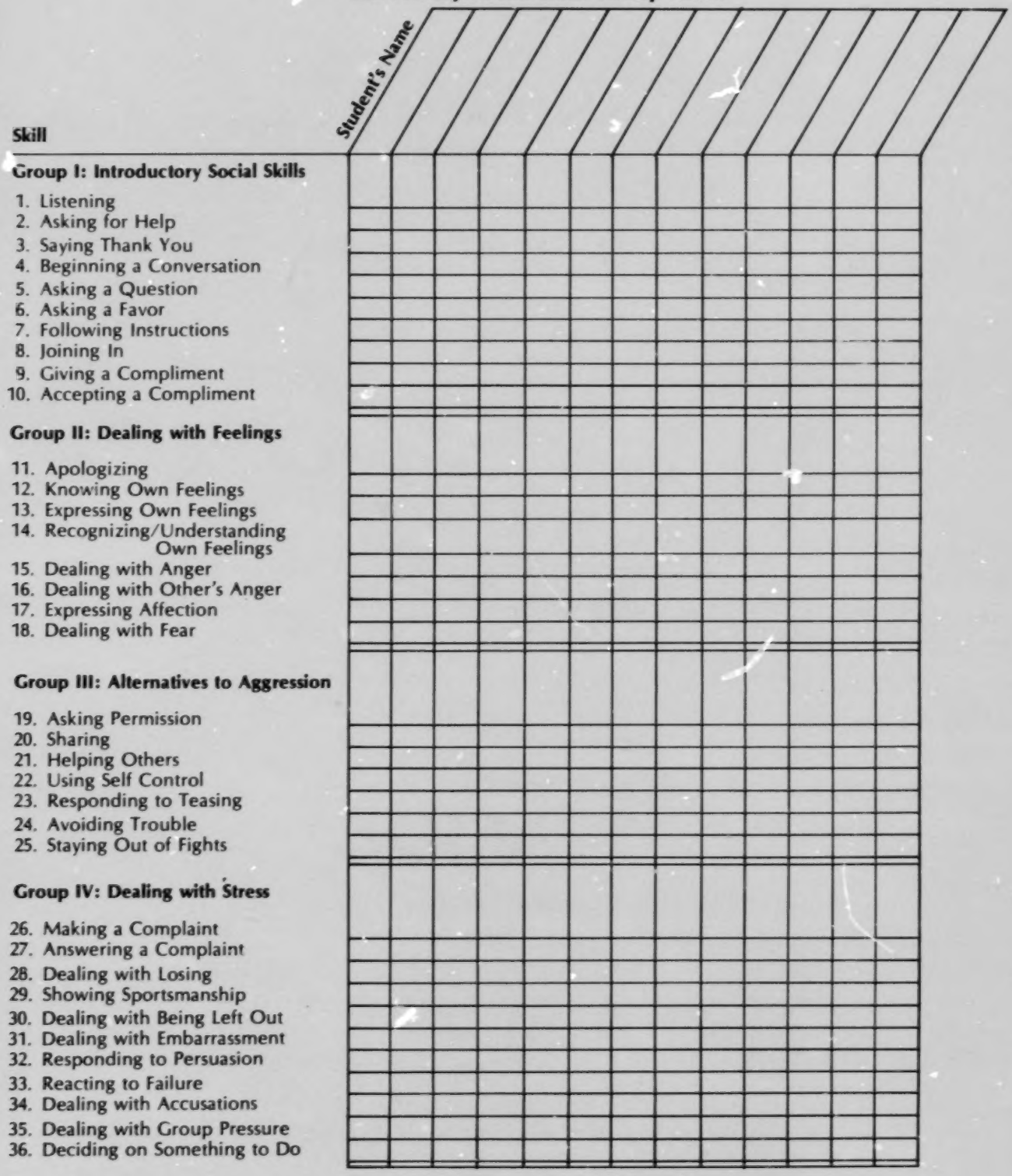

Figure 4

Behavior Level Interventions

Questions	Interventions
1. Is the student exposed to appropriate models?	Provide appropriate modeling.
2. Does the student observe and imitate the prosocial behaviors being modeled?	Point out to the student the specific behaviors being modeled.
3. Does the child adjust his/her behavior in response to different people? situations/settings?	Call attention to what behavior is appropriate for given situations and with different persons (behavioral flexibility).
4. If the student behaves inappropriately, can he/she behave in a prosocial way when requested?	Remind the student to use a given skill.
5. If the student can react in a prosocial way when requested, does his/her emotional response inhibit this performance?	Train impulse control. Emphasize skills that deal with feelings.
6. Does the student receive rewards from peers and adults for the undesirable behavior? the desirable behavior?	Provide reinforcement for prosocial behavior. Implement contingency contracting.

In the initial stages of learning, a critical rule is to give lots of positive reinforcement (Bornstein and Quevillon, 1976). The reinforcement schedule should be thinned (the frequency of distributing the tokens lessened) as students become successful with structured learning.

Reinforcement Phase I: Following group work, the students write their names on the SCAMO (Showing Caring About Myself and Others) tokens they have earned. These tokens are then placed in a "Raffle Box." At the end of each week, or more frequently if needed, several names are drawn for prizes. The students are told that the more SCAMO's they have, the more likely the chance their name will be drawn. This procedure provides frequent reinforcement without much cost, in addition to building interest and enthusiasm for learning social skills.

SCAMO

Showing Caring About Myself and Others

Before students can break their well-established patterns of response, they need to learn strategies like counting to 10 or taking three deep breaths when the problem first arises.

Reinforcement Phase II: Each day the students chart the number of tokens they have earned for practicing social skills and for group participation. Each student is then able to spend these points for a variety of privileges that are assigned a particular point value. Students are allowed to choose the specific privilege they will earn. These privileges are ones that encourage social acceptance (such as ordering a film for the entire class to view) and allow the practice of the social skills they have learned (such as playing a game with a friend). Tokens are given less frequently during Reinforcement Phase II, but social praise is continued on a random schedule even when not combined with tokens.

The students should also be informed when they may exchange their points. For example, many teachers find it most productive to allow students to exchange these points following the social skills teaching session and at other times in the school day (i.e. when a specified amount of academic work is completed). Allowing the students to choose times throughout the day provides frequent or delayed reinforcement depending on the needs of each student.

The Structured Learning Approach

Structured learning is a behavioral approach to teaching prosocial skills (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980). This method provides students with specific behavioral steps to guide their performance of a social skill. The steps are learned to a mastery level with actual examples for illustration (modeling). Structured learning also provides practice with the skill in simulated problem situations (role playing); information as to how well the skill was performed (feedback); and practice in real life situations (transfer of training).

Skills and Skill Steps: Many social skills chosen for instruction are those believed to be related to a child's social competence (Spivak and Shure, 1974); those suggested by the research as related to peer acceptance (Mesibov and LaGreca, 1981), positive teacher attention and academic success (Cartledge and Milburn 1980); and those likely to provide reinforcement in the student's natural environment.

Key social skills, such as "how to deal with wanting something that isn't mine," are task analyzed into a sequence. These steps will guide the student's performance of the social skill. For example:

When I Want Something That Isn't Mine

1. Say to yourself, "I want this, but I can't just take it."
2. Say, "It belongs to _____."
3. Think of your choices:
   a. I could ask the person to loan (or share) it.
   b. I could earn the money to buy it.
   c. I could ask the person to trade.
4. Act out your best choice.

Other examples of this type of skill can be found in Goldstein, et.al.'s *Skillstreaming the Adolescent* (1980) and Stephens' *Social Skills in the Classroom* (1978).

The first step of many of the skills, specifically those that deal with alternatives to aggression, must present an impulse control strategy. Before a student can break his or her well-established pattern of response and learn the prosocial alternative, the student's initial reaction to the conflict situation must be stopped. Therefore, the student needs to learn strategies such as counting to 10 or taking three deep breaths when the problem first arises. This gives the student time to recall the remainder of the steps to the prosocial skill.

Although these behavioral steps are displayed for students on a chart or skill card (a card that lists the steps), it is important that they memorize the steps. The structured learning components will facilitate this memorization by pointing out the steps as they are modeled, verbalizing each step as it is performed in the role playing setting, giving feedback as to how well the skill was performed, and listing the skill steps on specific homework assignments.

Merely being exposed to a model is not enough. The student must also attend to the behaviors modeled, remember them and reproduce them.

Modeling

Modeling, or imitating a behavior, has been an effective method of learning for children and adolescents (Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1961; Rogers-Warren and Baer, 1976; and Rosenthal, 1976). Modeling is the first phase of structured learning and demonstrates to the students *what* to do. Several conditions will enhance the effectiveness of modeling (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980).

Characteristics that enhance the model's effectiveness

- the model is highly skilled in the behavior
- the model is considered to be of a high status
- the model is friendly and helpful
- the model is of the same age, sex and social status
- the model is rewarded for the behavior

Characteristics of the modeling display

- presents clear and detailed behaviors
- presents the behaviors in order from least to most difficult
- provides enough repetition to facilitate overlearning
- presents little irrelevant detail
- provides several models, rather than a single model

Characteristics of the observer (target student)

- the student is instructed to imitate the model
- the student likes the model
- the student is similar in background to the model
- the student is rewarded for performing the behavior which was modeled

Modeling is also more effective when a coping model is presented as opposed to a mastery model (Bandura, 1977). For example, if the model's task is to demonstrate the skill of "how to handle teasing," it is more effective if the model "struggles" with walking away from his or her tormentor. Walking away slowly, with teeth clenched, will show that this is not an easy task to accomplish. Modeling verbal mediation, for instance, saying out loud "It's hard to walk away, but I can do it," further helps to demonstrate a coping model. This provides a more realistic modeling display than simply walking away void of any emotion or conflict.

Merely being exposed to a model is not sufficient for learning to take place. Many students have appropriate modeling available to them through non-special education classes, yet they do not learn the necessary prosocial behaviors. Thus, learning does not occur by mere exposure to modeling. The individual must also *attend* to the behaviors modeled, *remember* these behaviors, and *reproduce* them (Bandura, 1977).

With structured learning, the students must identify the specific behaviors (or skill steps) being modeled. This increases the chances that the student is actually paying attention to the modeling display. The students must also remember these behaviors. Repeating the steps as they are being modeled and

practicing these behaviors in a role playing setting will assist the student's retention of the actions that are modeled.

However, learning via modeling requires not only that the observer pay attention to the modeled actions and remember these behaviors, but that he or she actually reproduces the behaviors. Therefore, learning is not determined by whether or not the student *can* reproduce the behaviors, but rather by whether he or she *does* reproduce them (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980). This will be more likely to occur if the student is rewarded for the behavior (Bandura, 1977).

It is also important that the teacher, in the course of the school day, model appropriate social behavior. When the teacher becomes frustrated or angry with a student's behavior, it has a powerful effect if the teacher models the steps of "dealing with my own anger" in a clear and deliberate manner.

Role Playing

Studies carried out on role playing with children indicate that this strategy can create behavior changes in social skills (Rathjen, Hiniker and Rathjen, 1976; Ross, Ross and Evans, 1976). In addition, a student is far more likely to reproduce the behavior if he or she is an active, rather than passive, participant (Bricker, 1978). Factors that enhance the effectiveness of role playing include (1) allowing the student to choose whether or not to participate in the role playing; (2) the student's commitment to the behavior he or she is role playing (i.e. the skill is relevant to the student's needs); (3) ability to improvise the role playing; and (4) reinforcement given for performing the behaviors (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980).

Role playing is the second stage of structured learning, and it helps the student learn *how* to perform the skill. First, the student identifies a situation where the problem was experienced. Then the student chooses another role player, one who reminds him or her most of the person with whom he or she has the difficulty (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980). The role playing occurs in the context of the situation described by the main role player. Role playing the skill a number of times, with different people and in a variety of settings and situations, increases the likelihood that the student will use the skill outside the teaching setting (Stokes and Baer, 1977).

It is important that students practice verbal mediation during their role playing. Saying the steps aloud as they are performing the behaviors will facilitate students' learning of the social skill.

Verbal Mediation

Verbal mediation, or talking oneself through the performance of the skill, is a vital part of structured learning. When modeling the skill of "how to handle teasing," for example, the model recites the steps of the social skill in the context of a given situation. The model might say something like: "I believe I am being teased because they are looking at me and laughing. I don't like to be teased, but I won't let them know that! I'm angry, so first I have to cool down. I need to count to five. 1. . .2. . .3. . .4. . .5. Okay, now I think of my choices." etc. This narration increases the effectiveness of the modeling display (Bandura, 1977), may facilitate generalization of the skill (Stokes and Baer, 1977), as well as models the cognitive process one goes through in performing the skill.

Similarly, the child must talk himself or herself through the skill when role playing. Research suggests that verbal mediation in the role playing setting helps to restrain impulsivity and assists the student's retention and organization of the behaviors (Meichenbaum and Goodman, 1971).

Performance Feedback

Approval or reinforcement is given by the teacher and peers as the role playing becomes increasingly like the behavior of the model (Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein, 1980). If the role player does not follow the skill steps, feedback is given by discussing what could be done differently, reteaching, or prompting the student through the skill steps. The main role player should also evaluate his or her own performance.

The group participants also provide feedback to the main role player. However, this must be done in a positive or constructive manner. Suggestions for what the role player could do to become more successful, constructive reminders to include a specific skill step, and comments pertaining to the feelings of the role players are examples of acceptable feedback. Encouraging the group members to participate in feedback also focuses their attention on the role playing and helps prevent boredom and potential behavior problems. Students could also be assigned to watch for each step as it is performed.

Transfer of Training

Transfer of training is perhaps the most important part of structured learning. Several studies indicate that although structured learning is a successful strategy to create behavior change, these behaviors do not maintain over time, nor do they generalize outside the teaching setting, unless specific techniques are implemented to assist this transfer (Goldstein, 1981).

It is crucial, then, that this approach not become a "train. . .and hope" one (Stokes and Baer, 1977). Instead the teacher must plan for the generalization and maintenance of learned social skills. Following is a structured sequence of homework assignments for elementary age children that plans for the generalization and maintenance of social skills instruction.

The assignments begin with the teacher and student together deciding when and how the student will practice, and progress to the stage where the students themselves record the skills they have used. Homework assignments are given to several students each day. Four stages of homework are used, depending on the level of the student's mastery of the skill.

Homework Stage 1: The students think of situations (either at home or school) in which they want to practice the skill. The student and teacher agree to the skill steps, who they will be tried with, and when the plans will be carried out (*Figure 5*).

Homework Stage 2 (Red Flag): The student will be told that he or she will be "set up." For example, if the skill is "how to ask a question," the student will be told, "During math this morning, I will give you work that you won't understand. I want you to remember the steps. They are on your homework sheet. Remember, I will be setting you up. It's a Red Flag!" (Hawkins, 1980). When the teacher has given the difficult assignment to the student and the student has reacted, the teacher calls "Red Flag." Then together they evaluate the child's response (*Figure 6*).

It's important that the student initially be given this type of preparation, as the goal is to successfully use the skill. As the student becomes more familiar with this process, less advance notice should be given. This method is similar to Meichenbaum's Stress Innoculation Training (Cartledge and Milburn, 1980). The goal of this strategy is not only for the student to be able to perform the skill under nonstressful conditions, but under stress as well. Following successful performance with Homework Stage 2, the student should be ready to attempt use of the skill under real-life circumstances (*Figure 6*).

Homework Stage 3 (Self Recording): The child who has almost achieved mastery level of a skill (knowing the steps well and showing success with the other two stages of homework) writes the steps onto the self-recording sheet. Then, throughout the school day, the student writes when the steps of the skill were practiced and the self-evaluation portion is completed (*Figure 7*). The younger student can take the homework sheet into the regular classroom. This will assist in transferring learning to the setting to which the student will eventually return.

Homework Stage 4: Several skills are listed on a 3" x 5" note card and the student tallies each time he or she practices the skill. This method of self-recording also gives the older student an inconspicuous way to chart skills used in regular education classes and settings such as the playground and school cafeteria. Specific example of homework assignments for adolescents are given in Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980).

Self-Recording and Self-Evaluation

In addition to self-evaluation during role playing, the students evaluate their own performance in each stage of the homework assignments. Assignments are shared with the group, and reinforcement is given for completing homework assignments and evaluating his or her own performance. The self-evaluation is based on how well the student performed the steps of the skill, rather than how well the skill actually worked. Students must be made aware that the skill may not work in every situation; however, they still need reinforcement for using the skill steps.

Self-recording is also implemented by completing the Daily Self-Report Chart (*Figure 8*). Students record the skills they have practiced during the day. This provides a record of the skills the students are actually using and gives the teacher an indication of the specific skills not being used. The teacher will then know which skills need to be reviewed or taught again. As time permits, several students should be asked to cite the specific situations in which a skill was performed, and the students should receive verbal praise from the teacher for these self-reports. Peers should also be encouraged to reinforce the students citing the examples.

Figure 5

Homework Stage 1 Record Sheet

Skillstreaming - Homework

Student _____ Date _____

Skill _____

Steps:

Who will I try this with? _____

When? _____

What happened? _____

_____

_____

How did I do?

Figure 6

Homework Stage 2 Record Sheet

Skillstreaming - Red Flag

Student _____ Date _____

Skill _____

Steps:

How did I do?

Red Flag 1

Red Flag 2

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Figure 7

Homework Stage 3 Record Sheet

Skillstreaming - Self Recording

Student _____ Date _____

Skill _____

Steps:

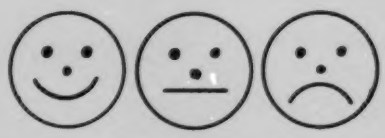
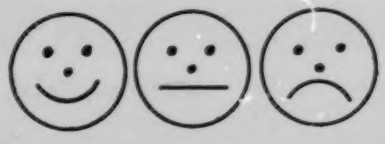
When I practiced	How did I do?
	
	

Figure 8

Daily Self-Report Chart

Skills:	Student Names:										

Other Generalization Strategies

Additional generalization principles need to be considered throughout the teaching process. The principles that enhance generalization and maintenance of learned behaviors are related to the instructional setting, materials and teaching personnel; systems of reinforcement; and task instruction.

Teaching Setting, Materials and Personnel

The principle of training implies that generalization is facilitated when the setting in which the training or teaching occurs closely resembles the natural setting where the skill will be used (Goldstein, 1981). Hence, when simulation is used in lieu of teaching in the natural environment, the physical setting should be as much like the natural setting as possible (Buckley and Walker, 1978). Using props and arranging the teaching environment to resemble the real environment where the skill will be performed enhances generalization.

The actual use of a skill is facilitated by teaching the skill in a variety of settings and in response to a variety of persons (Stokes and Baer, 1977; Stokes, Baer and Jackson, 1974). This includes teaching social skills in several different school environments (cafeteria, classroom, library, etc.), and planning for skill use at home (in response to parents and siblings) or school (in response to other teachers and school personnel) and in the student's neighborhood environment.

An additional method to enhance generalization focuses on environmental changes that will support the child's new behaviors (Walker, 1979). This involves instructing parents, peers and school personnel in strategies that reinforce the student when a given skill is performed.

Reinforcement Systems

Providing reinforcement when the student demonstrates the desired behavior (Stokes and Baer, 1977), then gradually thinning the reinforcement schedule (Koegel and Rincover, 1977) are other generalization and maintenance methods that have proven successful. Using reinforcement that occurs naturally in the environment, such as smiling and a pleasant thank you (initially this social reinforcement may need to be paired with a stronger reinforcer) will increase the chances that the student will be reinforced by others outside the teaching setting (Stokes and Baer, 1977).

Generalization is enhanced when teachers, parents and peers reinforce the student when a given skill is performed.

Task Instruction

Overlearning, or learning to a mastery level (Goldstein, 1981) increases the likelihood that the skill will be used outside the teaching setting. Even though we feel a student has learned a skill in the classroom setting, it is necessary that the instruction be withdrawn systematically, rather than stopped abruptly (Buckley and Walker, 1978). Instructing the student to use the skill when a situation suggests its use (instructed generalization) facilitates continued performance and transfer of the skill (Stokes and Baer, 1977). Additionally, telling the child that he or she will be teaching the skill to others and using the student as a co-teacher (helper role structuring) will further enhance generalization (Goldstein, 1981). The following outline lists generalization and maintenance strategies incorporated into structured learning:

Instructional Setting, Materials and Personnel

1. Instruction in natural environments where the skill is actually needed (i.e. playground, hallways, school bus) (Walker, 1979).
2. Teaching in a setting similar to environments where the skill is to be used (Goldstein, 1981).
3. Using props to enhance the similarity of the teaching setting and the natural setting (Buckley and Walker, 1978; Goldstein, 1981).
4. Instruction in groups (Stokes and Baer, 1977; Stokes, Baer and Jackson, 1974).
5. Training peers, teachers and parents to reinforce skill use (inservice training for school staff, informing parents of target skills, and group instruction) (Stokes, Baer, and Jackson, 1974).
6. Teaching the skill in a variety of situations and settings (multiple role plays with different persons) (Stokes and Baer, 1977; Wahler, 1969).

Reinforcement

7. Providing reinforcement when the desired behavior occurs (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
8. Providing reinforcement on an intermittent or random schedule (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
9. Gradually decreasing the frequency of reinforcement for performance (Koegel and Rincover, 1977).
10. Allowing the students to determine their own reinforcement (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
11. Emphasis on skills relevant to the student's needs (skills the student will have the opportunity to use and be reinforced for).
12. Providing for natural reinforcement (reinforcement likely to occur in the natural environment) (Stokes and Baer, 1977) paired with other reinforcement as needed.

Skill Instruction

13. Overlearning the skill (practice several times in different sets of circumstances; multiple role plays; homework assignments) (Goldstein, 1981).
14. Systematic withdrawal of instruction (using periodic review and reteaching of the skills; daily recording skills used) (Buckley and Walker, 1978).
15. Instructing the student to use the skill when conditions indicate its use (instructed generalization) (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
16. Allowing the student to teach the skill to others or to participate as a co-teacher (helper role structuring) (Goldstein, 1981).

17. Using verbal mediation (talking oneself through the skill during modeling and role playing) (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
18. Planning opportunities for students to practice the skills (Cartledge and Milburn, 1980).
19. Implementing self-recording procedures (daily recording of skills used; homework self-recording) (Stokes and Baer, 1977).
20. Implementing individual behavioral contracts for use of a particular social skill (Stephens, 1978).

For generalization and maintenance to occur, it is further necessary to plan the classroom environment in ways that encourage students to use prosocial skills. Allowing the students to work in small groups and using cooperative learning activities (Johnson and Johnson, 1975) are examples of creating opportunities for students to practice the social skills they have learned.

Post-Teaching Assessment: Phase II

Following a series of social skills teaching sessions, it is necessary to re-evaluate the students' skills. This second phase of assessment determines student progress in social skills, indicates any adjustments in the student's instructional plan, and determines whether or not the student is actually using these skills outside the teaching setting.

Post-Teaching Evaluation

This part of the assessment is accomplished by (1) reassessment by the same techniques used in the pre-teaching phase; and (2) assessing the student's achievement on specific goals.

Sociometric techniques, direct observation and teacher reporting are carried out following the series of teaching sessions. Additional documentation of student progress is provided by again completing the social skills checklist on each student. The pre- and post-teaching scores on this checklist are then entered on the Social Skills Progress Summary (*Figure 9*).

Daily recording the social skills used by each student is accomplished through student self-report and completed homework assignments. This information, along with the goals and objectives achieved on the student's Individualized Educational Plan (*Figure 10*) provides additional documentation of social skills progress.

Assessing Maintenance and Generalization

The assessment process is incomplete without determining that the student continues to use the skill following the teaching (maintenance) and demonstrates the skill in environments other than where the teaching occurred (generalization). A review of studies by Rotherman (1980) indicates that changes in social behavior following instruction do not continue beyond a few weeks after intervention ceases. Additionally, skills taught do not automatically generalize to other environments (Stokes and Baer, 1977).

When a skill is "learned" in a given situation or setting, the only thing we can be fairly certain of is that the student can perform that skill in that setting under those specific teaching conditions. We cannot assume that the student will actually be able to use the skills outside the teaching setting.

Walker (1979) views changes in behavior as a two-stage process. Stage one consists of strategies to change the behavior (i.e. social skills instruction). Stage two consists of a second set of strategies to ensure that the learned behavior is applied over time, under a variety of conditions and in other environments. Our teaching must not overlook this second, critical aspect of social skills instruction. Teaching is only effective if the students actually use these skills.

Several strategies can be used to assess whether or not a student's performance maintains over time and generalizes to other situations and settings. These include: (1) documentation of performance on homework assignments; (2) teacher recording of observed social skills over time and in various settings; (3) successful completion of contingency contracts for use of a given skill (Stephens, 1978); and (4) implementing student self-recording procedures. (Refer to the section on transfer of training.)

Figure 9

Elementary Social Skills Progress Summary

Student: _____

	Pretest Score Date: ____	Posttest Score Date: ____	Performance	Change (+ or -)
Group I: Introductory Social Skills				
1. Listening				
2. Asking for help				
3. Saying thank you				
4. Beginning a conversation				
5. Asking a question				
6. Asking a favor				
7. Following instructions				
8. Joining in				
9. Giving a compliment				
10. Accepting a compliment				
Group II: Skills for Dealing with Feelings				
11. Apologizing				
12. Knowing own feelings				
13. Expressing own feelings				
14. Recognizing/understanding other's feelings				
15. Dealing with own anger				
16. Dealing with other's anger				
17. Expressing affection				
18. Dealing with fear				
Group III: Alternatives to Aggression				
19. Asking permission				
20. Sharing				
21. Helping others				
22. Using self control				
23. Responding to teasing				
24. Avoiding trouble				
25. Staying out of fights				
Group IV: Dealing with Stress				
26. Making a complaint				
27. Answering a complaint				
28. Dealing with losing				
29. Showing sportsmanship				
30. Dealing with being left out				
31. Dealing with embarrassment				
32. Responding to persuasion				
33. Reacting to failure				
34. Dealing with an accusation				
35. Dealing with group pressure				
36. Deciding on something to do				
37. When I want something that isn't mine				

Note. This progress summary is a modification of the "Skill Checklist Summary" found in *Skillstreaming the Adolescent*.

Figure 10

Individualized Education Plan

Grant Wood
AREA EDUCATION AGENCY
4401 Sixth Street Southwest
Cedar Rapids, Iowa 52404

ANNUAL GOALS/SHORT TERM OBJECTIVES

INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM

STUDENT	To ____ From ____ To ____ From ____

GRADE	BIRTHDATE	AUTHOR	REVIEWER	Date

PRESENT LEVEL

(see pre-post checklist)

ANNUAL GOAL

For Social Skills
(content area)

Brian will demonstrate his mastery (evaluation of No. 4 on Elementary Social Skills Checklist) of 80 percent of Group I social skills as demonstrated in "natural" settings as measured by the classroom teacher.

Outcome Above ☐ Expected ☐ Below ☐

SHORT TERM OBJECTIVES	STRATEGIES/MATERIALS
Brian will identify the skill steps.	Modeling, feedback
Brian will recall the skill steps.	
Brian will role play the specific steps.	Feedback, role playing, Mastery Record Card
Brian will identify situations where the skill is appropriate.	Homework Assignments
Brian will plan the use of the skill (when-where-how-with whom).	Homework 1
Brian will act out the specific steps in a simulated situation.	Homework 2 (Red Flag)
Brian will record the practice of the skill: Settings: _____ _____ _____	Homework 3, Homework 4 Daily Recording Sheet
Brian will evaluate his success in using the skill.	Homework 1 through 3 Discussion of accuracy of this self-evaluation

Other:	Accepting a Compliment	Giving a Compliment	Joining In	Following Instructions	Asking a Favor	Asking a Question	Beginning a Conversation	Saying Thank You	Asking for Help	Listening

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Summary

The program focuses on social skills assessment, a behavioral intervention design (structured learning), and specific strategies for maintenance and generalization of learned social skills. While much of the instructional program is designed to take place during a specific "group time," structured learning is most effective when it is also integrated into the teacher's behavior management system.

When potential problems arise in the classroom (the teachable moment), the teacher can elicit a prosocial response from the student by suggesting that the skill steps be used, rather than reprimanding the student for having the problem. It may also be necessary to prompt a student through the behavioral steps for the social skill needed, and then give approval when the steps are taken. Each time this happens, the teacher is reminding the students *what to do*, rather than *what not to do*. This turns problem situations into learning opportunities for behaviorally disordered students. Furthermore, it provides an environment where a positive emphasis is placed on *learning* how to deal with problems that contribute to their handicap.

Appendix

Examples of Elementary Social Skills and Behavioral Steps

Listening

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Look at the person who is talking.	Sometimes others may think someone isn't listening, even though he or she really is. These steps are to *show* someone that you are really listening.
2. Remember to sit quietly.	Face the person. Remember not to laugh, fidget, play with something, etc.
3. Think about what is being said.	
4. Say "yes" or nod your head.	
5. Ask a question about the topic to find out more.	Discuss relevant questions (i.e. ones that do not change the topic)

Suggested Situations

School: Teacher explains an assignment.

Home: Your parents are talking with you about a problem.
Your sister or brother is telling you what he/she did in school.

Peer Group: Another student tells of a T.V. program he/she watched.
A student tells what he/she did over the weekend.

Comments

This is an excellent skill with which to begin your social skills group. Once the students learn the skill of listening, it is useful to incorporate this into your group or classroom rules.

It is important to emphasize *showing* someone the behaviors that indicate the student is listening. When a student is talking with the teacher, it is useful for the teacher to model these listening behaviors.

Asking for Help

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Ask yourself: "Can I do this alone?"	Make sure you have read directions and tried the assignment on your own. Try at least one problem or question.
2. If not, raise your hand.	Discuss that this is appropriate in class, not at home or with friends.
3. Wait. Say to yourself "I know I can wait without talking."	Instruct the students to say this to themselves until the desired help is given.
4. Ask for help in a friendly way.	Discuss what is a friendly manner (i.e. tone of voice, facial expression, content)

Suggested Situations

School: You want help with an assignment.
You don't understand what you are supposed to do.

Home: Refer to Asking a Favor

Peer Group: Refer to Asking a Favor

Comments

It is very important to discuss body language with the students. When first introducing terminology such as "a friendly way," spending time discussing and modeling these behaviors and non-verbal communicators is essential.

Apologizing

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Decide if you need to apologize for something you did.	Sometimes we do things for which we are later sorry. Apologizing is something we can do to let the other person(s) know we are sorry. It also often makes you feel better.
2. Think of your choices: a. Say it out loud to the person. b. Write the person a note.	Emphasize sincerity. Practice verbal and written ways to apologize.
3. Choose a good time and place.	You may want to be alone with the person.
4. Act out your best choice in a friendly way.	Apologize soon after the problem.

Suggested Situations

School: You are late for a class.

Home: You accidentally break something.

Peer Group: You say something cruel because you were angry.
You have planned to do something with a friend but you have to go somewhere with your parents.

Sharing

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Decide if you want to share something.	Talk about how the other person might feel if the student does or doesn't share.
2. Decide who you want to share with.	If you can only share with one person, think of how others around may feel left out.
3. Choose a good time and place.	
4. Offer to share in a friendly and sincere way.	Practice how to look and talk in a sincere manner.

Suggested Situations

School: Offer to share your materials (crayons, pencil, etc.) with a classmate.

Home: Offer to share a treat with a friend, brother or sister.

Peer Group: Offer to share a game with a friend.

Joining In

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Decide if you want to join in.	Decide if you really want to participate or if there are other reasons (i.e. you want to disrupt the group). A good time may be during a break in the activity or before the activity begins.
2. Choose a good time.	
3. Decide what to say.	
4. Say it in a friendly way.	

Suggested Situations

School: Ask to join a group game at recess.

Home: Ask to join in on a game with parents or brothers and sisters.

Peer Group: Ask to join in an activity at a club or in the neighborhood.

Comments

This skill is very useful for students who have difficulties deciding what to do in social play situations.

Knowing Your Own Feelings

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Think of how your body feels.	Discuss the cues your body gives you, for example, blushing, tight muscles, queasy stomach, jumpy stomach, etc.
2. Decide what you could call the feeling.	Additional activities specific to identifying and labeling feelings may need to be provided.
3. Say to yourself: "I feel _____."	Discuss feelings such as frustration, fear, embarrassment, etc.

Suggested Situations

School: You are frustrated with a difficult assignment.

Home: You are angry because your parents forgot to do something they had promised to do.

Peer Group: You are disappointed because a friend promised to go to a movie with you, but he/she can't go.

Expressing Your Feelings

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Stop and think about how you feel.	A list of feelings should be displayed for reference.
2. Decide what it is you are feeling.	Say to yourself how you feel and what made you feel that way.
3. Think about your choices:	
a. Say to the person "I feel _____."	
b. Walk away for now.	Until the student has calmed down.
c. Get involved in an activity.	Discuss activities to assist children in letting out frustration and anger.
4. Act out your best choice.	Consider when and where the student may be able to talk about the feeling. If the student is still angry after following these steps, wait until he/she isn't so angry before acting on the best choice.

Suggested Situations

School: You want to answer in class, but you're afraid your answer will be wrong.

Home: You are excited about going somewhere.

Peer Group: Someone calls you a name.
Someone ignores you.

Comments

The teacher can model this behavior throughout the school year by expressing his/her feelings to the class in the appropriate manner.

Dealing with Fear

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Decide if you are feeling afraid.	Discuss how your body feels (i.e., sweaty hands, jumpy stomach, etc.).
2. Decide what you are afraid of.	Discuss real threats vs. imagined ones. Ask yourself if the fear is a real threat to your physical safety. You may need to check this out with another person.
3. Think of your choices: a. Talk to someone about it. b. Do a relaxation exercise. c. Try it anyway.	Refer to Skill 56 for relaxation.
4. Act out your best choice.	

Suggested Situations

School: You are afraid to take a test.
You are afraid to go out to recess because someone said they would beat you up.

Home: You are home alone at night.

Peer Group: Someone in the neighborhood keeps teasing you.

Comments

The students may need practice in evaluating how well one choice worked. If one choice did not work well for the student, he/she should be encouraged to try one of the other choices.

Students should be encouraged to evaluate realistic vs. unrealistic fears. When fears are realistic ones, the alternative of talking to someone about this would be the suggested choice. Students may also need to problem solve ways to deal with realistic fears (See Skill 41 Problem Solving).

Expressing Affection

Steps	Teacher Notes for Discussion
1. Decide if you have good feelings about the other person.	Discuss these feelings.
2. Decide if you think the other person would like to know you feel this way.	Discuss possible consequences of telling the person; for example, the person may become embarrassed, it may make the person feel good.
3. Decide what you will say.	Remember to say this in a friendly way (look at the person, voice tone, facial expression, etc.)
4. Choose a good time and place.	
5. Tell the person in a friendly way.	

Suggested Situations

School: Thanking a teacher for something he/she has done.

Home: Telling your parents that you love them.

Peer Group: Telling friends that you like them and want to continue being friends.

Comments

This skill may be difficult for many adults to carry out; therefore, students may not have this skill modeled for them. It is important for the teacher to provide this type of modeling for the students.

Dealing with Own Anger

Steps

1. Stop and count to 10.
2. Think of your choices:
   a. Tell the person in words why you are angry.
   b. Walk away for now.
   c. Do a relaxation exercise.
3. Act out your best choice.

Teacher Notes for Discussion

This is important to give you time to cool off and think.

Tell the person in a way that won't make that person angry, too. Students may also need to ask the teacher if they can leave the room and run an errand for him/her, run outside for two or three minutes, etc.

Discuss these choices as part of "walking away."

Suggested Situations

School: You don't think the teacher has been fair to you.
You are angry at yourself for forgetting your homework.
You are having a day "where everything seems to go wrong."

Home: Your parents won't let you have a friend over.
Your parents won't let you leave the house.

Peer Group: A friend talks about you behind your back.

Comments

For a child who directs anger toward himself/herself, additional choices may need to be included. Such choices may include: write about how you feel; decide how you can change to keep this from happening again, etc. Skills such as Problem Solving can also assist many children who have difficulty dealing with their anger at themselves.

Dealing with Other's Anger

Steps

1. Listen to what the person has to say.
2. Think of your choices:
   a. Keep listening
   b. Ask them why they are angry.
   c. Give them an idea to fix the problem.
   d. Walk away for now.
3. Act out your best choice.

If you are feeling that you are getting angry, too, walk away for now, until you feel that you are calm.

Teacher Notes for Discussion

Don't interrupt or become defensive; if needed, say to yourself, "I can stay calm."

Suggested Situations

School: The teacher is angry at you for not doing well on a test.

Home: Your parents are angry because you didn't clean up your room.

Peer Group: Another student is angry at you because you didn't choose him/her to play a game.

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Teaching Independent Student Behaviors to Behaviorally Disordered Youth

by Virginia L. Brown

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Introduction

Students labelled as behaviorally disordered are rarely characterized as "good students" by school personnel, their parents or guardians, much less by themselves. Ironically, it isn't often that the school program deals directly with teaching *any* students the behaviors required of good students. In most cases, the consequences of this omission are negligible, because even young school children learn inductively to play the school game, or they are coached by family members or friends. More importantly, they implicitly or explicitly recognize the fact that there is a school game to be learned and played. For students labelled as behaviorally disordered, the inability or the disinclination to deal effectively with the rules, reasons and acceptable behaviors associated with playing the school game is educationally fatal. It is likely to be the primary factor in their assignment to a special program, or perhaps even for their removal from school.

The historical link between learning problems and behavior disorders is both long and strong. Bower (1960) suggested that, "an inability to learn (which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors) is perhaps the single most significant characteristic of emotionally handicapped children in school" (p. 9). Bower's emphasis on academic achievement in school screening for emotionally handicapped students found earlier support from the public school studies by Olson (1930) and Rogers (1942), in which a link between low achievement and "adjustment problems" was firmly established. Today, the perceived link is so strong that regulations for some state programs in behavior disorders require demonstration of academic deficiencies as part of identification for school services (a situation apparently not intended by Bower). In other cases, students are eligible for services if they are seriously disruptive of their classmates' learning environment. In any case, the emphasis is placed on the school as a place for learning, and on the disruption of school learning as a primary indicator of behavioral disabilities.

Whether in a direct or an indirect instructional role, teachers of behaviorally disordered youth have found that in spite of their efforts, the academic status of their students is often marginal at best. Further, being a "good student" requires more than academic competence. Even students who improve academically do not always disappear into the mainstream. What has been true for the mentally retarded is even truer for the behaviorally disordered student. School is a social system in which consideration must be given to values, attitudes, judgments, uniqueness of personalities, feelings and perceptions, no matter how behaviorally they are defined.

Skills in learning to play the game in the school social system are needed from preschool through graduate school. Cobb (1970) defined them as "survival" skills for first graders in an academic setting (*Figure 1*). In discussing the Carnegie study on high school reformation, O'Keefe refers to the silent compact between teachers and students, so that, "The teacher will say, 'This is tough for both of us, kid; let's strike a deal. You keep order, and I'll let you alone.'" (p. 745). College bookstores abound with advice from sources such as *The Other Way to Better Grades* (Karlins, 1981), about the nonacademic factors that influence school success. In each case, the "rules" are rarely stated, but must be learned by good students.

Teachers have long dealt with survival matters as a part of their underground curriculum, or "counseling," simply because they had to. Often more time is spent with behaviors that are not on the individualized education program (IEP) than with those that are. There is good reason to believe that these efforts are more likely the heart of the program, and should become legitimized.

The interventions proposed in this chapter are designed to teach students to behave in a constructively independent fashion in school, i.e., to learn to be—or to act as if they are—"good students." The behaviors involved are incompatible with disruption, withdrawal and academic failure. There are three basic goals of such interventions. First, they should increase the student's self-perception as a learner and promote the observers' expressed perceptions that the student engages in the work habits associated with good students. The second purpose is to intervene in the school program and at home so that as many experiences as possible are arranged to elicit or reinforce good student behaviors. The third intent is even more important. It is to teach the student to assume a major share of the responsibility for creating a school environment that *does* elicit and reinforce good student behaviors.

Interventions that focus on teaching students to play the school game require substantive changes in the roles of the teacher or other resource personnel. The special teacher has taken on a variety of roles, such as crisis manager for the school, aide to the regular teacher(s), teacher, counselor and to a great extent, "keeper" for the student. Much of the intervention now carried out by special teachers is actually the responsibility of the students themselves, or of others. It is also logical that interventions that must be carried out over and over signal the need for prevention. If many students need help with learning to ask for

Figure 1

Brief Definition of Survival Skills

From J. A. Cobb, *Survival Skills and First Grade Academic Achievement. Report #1.* Eugene, Oregon: Center at Oregon for Research in the Behavioral Education of the Handicapped, 1970, p. 13.

Appropriate

Approval: used whenever a person gives clear gestural, verbal or physical approval to another individual.

Attention: pupil is doing what is appropriate in academic situation. . .used only when work-oriented categories are not applicable.

Compliance: pupil does what teacher requests.

Initiation to Teacher: pupil indicates to teacher he wants some assistance in academic work.

Talk to Peer Positive: pupil talks to another student about academic material.

Talk to Teacher Positive: pupil talks to teacher about academic material.

Volunteering: pupil raises hand in response to teacher's question.

Inappropriate

Inappropriate Locale: used when not in his appropriate place.

Look Around: pupil is looking around the room, out the window, staring into space.

Non-compliance: pupil does not do what is requested by the teacher.

Not-attending: pupil is not attending to the assignment and no other category is appropriate.

Play: pupil is playing with another pupil while the teacher is presenting material to the class.

Self-Stimulation: pupil stimulates himself (e.g., scratches, rubs pencil on desk, feels material in his clothing) to such an extent that he is not paying attention to the assignment.

Talk to Peer Negative: pupil talks to peer about non-academic material.

Talk to Teacher Negative: pupil talks to teacher about non-academic material.

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appropriate assistance, it might be reasonable to develop instruction in this area. The special teacher can be a catalyst in developing such instructional components.

Except for those of pure chance, games by definition involve the deliberate use of strategies to gain an advantage. A game-playing analogue for classroom survival skills conjures up the obvious term, manipulation. The very idea is distasteful to most of us because it means involvement in dilemmas about the control of human behavior. This does not mean that "playing the school game" is any less valid as an analogue for the kind of instruction some students need. It does mean that any consideration of the use of such interventions should also include serious thought and attention to the ethical and moral issues involved.

In summary, behavior disordered students often have severe and persistent learning problems as well as trouble understanding the subtle interactions that may be termed "playing the school game." Schools rarely teach any students the skills needed for school success, and teachers of behaviorally disordered youth often spend a disproportionate amount of time and effort helping students survive in school. These efforts are usually considered as extras, but they should become a legitimate role for the teacher. On the other hand, much of the teacher's work in this regard could, or should, be made the responsibility of the students or of other personnel when they have been helped to learn to assume such responsibility. There are interventions available that will help both students and teachers in terms of learning and supporting good student behaviors. These interventions require not only a change in the roles of teachers and students, but also increased attention to the moral and ethical dilemmas involved in teaching "game playing" behaviors.

The following section deals briefly with some of the theory and pragmatic rationale for considering good-student behaviors as a potential curriculum component.

Research and Theory

Nearly any information that relates to schools and to social systems would have application to instruction in good-student behaviors. However, the four major topics in this section deal with attributions and perceptions, for both students and teachers; the notion of dependence; study skills and strategies; and renewed interest in the direct instruction of social skills.

Attributions and Perceptions

"Attribution theory" deals with why people believe particular outcomes occur. For example, one student may attribute disruptive behavior to forgetting to take medication, while another attributes the same behavior to peers, and the teacher attributes it to lack of standards at home.

Shaver (1975) noted that the interpersonal and social consequences of attribution are serious in our daily lives. The consequences are particularly important for students with learning problems. Graubard's work with the school behavior of delinquents was a pioneering effort to deal with attribution. He and his colleagues devised specific strategies that students could learn in school "even if the teacher did not like them" (Minuchin, Chamberlain and Graubard, 1967, p. 561). The students in this case habitually expressed their attribution patterns by judging that their successes and problems depended on whether or not the teacher liked them, rather than whether or not they worked appropriately in the classroom.

The strategies devised at that time were later extended to teaching students how to elicit and verbally reward the positive instructional interactions of their teachers. In this case it was probable that the teachers of these students were being taught to believe that they were responsible for the "good-student behavior" of their students. Students can assume some responsibility for shaping the attributions of others.

O'Leary and Drabman (1970) suggest that when students attribute improvement to the setting in which they are learning to find success, any gains made are likely to be lost outside that setting. The same reasoning applies to drugs or to a special teacher. Students may not see themselves as responsible for their increased competence, and may actually stop improving. O'Leary and Drabman suggest that special attention should be given to attribution in the course of generalization from special settings.

Attribution involves perceptions that may be either valid or faulty. Quite often student perceptions of how teachers behave or feel are quite valid, but the students are led to believe they are wrong. Where there is a choice to be made about believing or not believing a student's attribution of problems to a punitive teacher who does not want that student to be successful, it may be professionally simpler to believe that the student's perceptions are faulty. Yet, failing to come to terms with "reality" means that the student will not have an opportunity to receive needed assistance in dealing with teachers who may not like him or her. It is unrealistic to expect that every teacher will like every student, or that every student will like every teacher. Preparation for life involves learning to work with people who may not like us as well as with people not especially pleasing to us.

Teachers' perceptions and attributions have been found to be important factors in their willingness to help students experiencing problems in school. Rohrkemper and Brophy (1983) reported the results of teachers' reactions to 24 vignettes about students with 12 different patterns of problematic behaviors in the classroom. Seventeen of the vignettes involved situations related to academic work habits. Teachers expressed more willingness to help students who were not perceived as willfully thwarting the academic program. Whether or not the students were actually problematic is in many ways beside the point. It is perceptions that become important in determining willingness to help.

Dependence

In addition to factors of attribution, the phenomenon of "learned helplessness" is involved in teaching good-student behaviors. Students who receive a great deal of assistance with their school work may become dependent on that assistance. Some seem unable to make a mark on a page without checking with a tutor, teacher or aide. Furthermore, teachers may become troubleshooters for students—selecting teachers for them, arranging their schedules and smoothing conflicts with peers or school personnel. Expectations for constructive independence or responsibility are not communicated. In these circumstances, students may receive the equivalent of respite care, unbothered by and not learning to cope with the normal demands of daily living. Some students resist learning the skills that would remove them from such a safe environment. This means that students may not be willing participants in well-intentioned efforts to increase their independence. There is also an ethical question of fairness to the student in creating a caretaking position that will not be continued when the student leaves school or the program.

Study Skills

A growing interest in teaching behavior disordered students how to study has developed in the past few years. Fortunately, there is a great deal of research and methodology from which to draw. However, it is only rarely that good study behaviors taught in the special program can be used in the regular program. Baer (1980) notes that teaching students any such strategies must be followed up to be sure that they work in the environment where they will be used, or else they will be extinguished.

In a different arena, and at an earlier time, Bloom and Broder (1950) described a special program at the University of Chicago. It was designed to teach bright "underachieving" students how to use a problem-solving approach to their studies. The extensive checklist of difficulties observed in the study habits of those students includes a large component relating to attitudes and attributions. Bloom and Broder were struck by the apparent fact that such bright students still needed instruction in how to study.

More recently, academic strategy training and cognitive behavior modification have been reported as necessary and effective in improving the academic achievement of learning disabled students (Kneedler and Hallahan, 1983). The basic strategies involve teaching overt thinking procedures as routines. Training in social skills was also part of the special instruction for learning disabled students so they could learn to initiate appropriate social interactions with teachers and peers.

In regular education, there is increasing interest in study skills instruction. For example, The National Association of Teachers of Mathematics and the National Association of Secondary School Principals have collaborated in producing instructional materials to teach study skills in mathematics (Tobin, 1980).

Colleges and some high schools are initiating study skills programs. Barnstorf (1977) of the University of Minnesota-Duluth, continues to imbed strategies for playing the school game with more direct work in areas like time management and notetaking.

Social Skills Training

The fourth area relevant to teaching students to play the school game is that of social skills training. The topic has become more prominent in behavior disorders programs with the recognition that students who engage in inappropriate behavior should not be admonished so much as taught appropriate behaviors. The technology and content of such programs is available at all age levels. *Teaching Social Behavior to Young Children* (Sheppard, Shank and Wilson, 1973) describes a structured framework to use in the natural environment. Many of the behaviors they address are important for school success as defined earlier by Cobb.

Sherry, Franzen, Buch, Christopherson, Dawson and Mosheim (1976) describe a program to teach school social skills as well as academic strategies to middle school students in special programs. Their work was self-developed because of the recurring need to address these problems in their classrooms, and because of the scarcity of such materials for the classroom teacher.

A more direct instructional approach designed especially for behavior disordered youth is found in the work of Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw and Klein (1980). Their behaviorally oriented materials provide scripts, organizational suggestions and methodologies for teaching the skills needed for common social interactions, such as "dealing with contradictory messages."

Although the strands noted above have not led directly to a means of teaching students to become constructively independent, they serve as base material from which future research and practice may be drawn. When taken together, they suggest that students can learn to differentiate between when their problems and successes are due to their own efforts and when they are not. Students can learn a wide array of study strategies and social skills that will enable them to be successful in the school setting. And students can become more responsible for their own behavior and for influencing how others perceive them. Although the focus is on the school setting, the same assumptions, goals and methodologies can be applied to home and community settings as well.

The next sections suggest some of the ways that program components for learning to play the school game can be developed, beginning with assessment of the student and of the school environment.

Assessment

Assessment of student competencies must take into account not only skills, but attitudes and attributions as well. The school may also be thought of as having competencies, in its ability to build, reinforce and maintain appropriate study and independent learning behaviors in students. It also has

attitudes and attributions, sometimes referred to as the "school climate."

This section deals with the rationale for going beyond a match/mismatch model of student-to-classroom or student-to-school. It also provides suggestions for looking at assessment; for finding out about attitudes, perceptions and hidden expectations; for using time-on-task in a broader way to look more carefully at the circumstances of the task; for using a match/mismatch checklist; and for analyzing assignment products. It concludes with comments on more detailed individual analysis.

The Need for an Overmatch Model

The concept of incremental validity (Anastasi, 1982) suggests that information should be collected only if it tells you what you didn't already know, and if it helps you make a better decision than you could have made without it. Assessment requires careful preplanning to be sure that only the right amount of relevant information is collected.

Basically, the information-economical model of choice in classroom assessment is one of match/mismatch. It seems logical that we are trying to close the gap between classroom expectations and student behavior. However, for interventions designed to teach students lasting skills in playing the school game, or in becoming good students, we must often "overmatch" the expectations of the classroom. Many fine resources are available for the match/mismatch model, notably Kerr and Nelson's *Strategies for Managing Behavior Problems in the Classroom* (1983). The overmatch model is more difficult.

It is highly probable that the classroom environment does not provide many opportunities for students to practice good-student behaviors they need to ensure that learning occurs once the game has been played. We should not lose sight of the fact that game-playing is not an end in itself, but a means by which students may be kept in an environment that has the potential for helping them learn constructive behavior and academic content. For example, it is relatively easy to teach a student to fill in the blanks of a specific question sheet. If the material is inconsequential busywork or the assignment is unrelated to future tests the teacher may give, then the student must in a sense overmatch the daily expectations of the classroom. The student must be taught to do busywork as a "teacher pleasing behavior" (Brown, 1969) and further taught to find a way to learn any important content crowded out by busywork, whether it is for test-taking or merely because it is something the student should know.

Places to Begin Assessment

The people who conduct assessment must first consider all that *could* be assessed, and select the general areas, the tools and the questions that seem relevant to the students of interest. In general, assessment should involve discussion with the student and the student's teacher(s). It is time well spent, for it provides leads to data collection. Further, the assessment process alone may be enough to constitute "intervention."

It is also possible to use the report card as an initial tool for deciding what to concentrate on in assessment. The report card is the major indicator that students need assistance. Generally, given two students with an equally marginal academic record, and given that one has massive marks on the study skills or work habits side of the report card and the other does not, it is likely that the "good work habit" student will pass, and the "poor work habit" student will not. That report card area can be used to start discussion with students, teachers and parents.

Attitudes, Perceptions and Expectations

Student attitudes, perceptions and attributions can be uncovered primarly through observation and talking with the student. Formal devices may also be used, but they are primarily designed to get students into discussion. Some of these are found in Bragstad and Stumpf's *A Guidebook for Teaching Study Skills and Motivation* (1982). A Q-sort format can be used with younger and older students (Brown, 1984). It is also possible to use norm-referenced measures such as the *Estes Attitude Scales: Measures of Attitudes toward School Subjects* (Estes, Richards and Roettger, 1981). It is not the scale that is important, but the discussion with the student about why certain agreements and disagreements were marked.

The attitudes and attributes of teachers can be discovered through discussion about a student's work habits and attitudes. Much of the subtlety of the teacher's attitudes can be found by analyzing the assignments given. Examples are described in the discussion of product analysis.

Students themselves are enlisted in finding out about the implicit expectations of the classroom. Eventually, they must learn that it is normal for different teachers to have different expectations. Some teachers want you to raise your hand before speaking, while others don't care. Some teachers want papers

typed, and others do not. While some teachers want students to work together, others will punish such behavior. In any case, students must learn to identify the "teacher-pleasing behaviors" in a specific classroom. Because of the connotation of the term, these behaviors may better be called, "behaviors that are idiosyncratic to the particular classroom or teacher." Students may be taught to differentiate expectations merely by training them in observation, and sending them to several different classrooms to observe and collect data or take notes. Once they understand what to look for, they can apply the idea to their own situations or to situations they will be encountering.

Broader Use of Time-on-Task

Time-on-task information may also be collected, whether for an individual or a group. For group or classroom assessment, the Playcheck (Planned Activity Check) of Risley (1971) is helpful. The steps involved in Playcheck are:

1. The observer scientifically defines the behavior (planned activity) he or she wishes to record in a group of children.
2. At given intervals (e.g., each 10 minutes) the observer counts as quickly as possible how many individuals are engaged in the behavior, recording the total.
3. The observer then counts and records as quickly as possible how many individuals are present in the area of the activity.
4. The number of pupils present is then divided into the number of pupils engaged in the behavior. By multiplying the results by 100, the observer finds the percent engaged in the behavior at that particular time (p. 4).

Where time-on-task data is collected for individuals, it is important to use a system that tells not only the proportion of time the student is on and off task, but what the student does when off task, and what the working pattern of the student is. This is using one's own shorthand to write an observational record of what the student does in a concentrated period of time when he or she is supposed to be engaged in independent work activity.

Match/Mismatch Checklist

Match/mismatch checklists are designed to find out how discrepant a student's behavior is from the expectations of the environment, in this case the school or the classroom. The checklist expanded by Brown (1984) may be used partially or in its entirety. It may be used to determine perceptions when self-reports of teachers and students are used, or to record actual expectations and behaviors if direct observations are used (*Figure 2*).

This instrument can be useful not only in assessing the current environment and behavior, but it is also used in transition programming from one school environment to another. For example, students who were going from an elementary to a middle school spent several weeks in January at the middle school. They drew maps; took slide pictures; recorded interviews with sixth graders, teachers and other personnel; collected work samples, assignments and textbooks; and conducted observations using the match/mismatch checklist as a structure. Although the IEP for these students showed a goal of raising their reading levels from 10 to 11 in "Lyons and Carnahan," it became apparent in January that other behaviors might be more important. For the remainder of the year the fifth grade program was modified to prepare the students for an easier transition to a difficult school.

Although some of the behaviors on the checklist seem to have little to do with good-student behavior, the teacher should be alert to their possible influence. For example, how the student left a classroom and behaved in the hall greatly prejudiced a nearby teacher against having that student in her room. In another case, the teacher got tired of explaining how to make up missed work, and refused to allow makeups.

Product or Assignment Analysis

One of the most fruitful areas for determining overt and covert expectations and the ability of the student to deal with the expectations lies in analyzing the written products that make up many of the school assignments. Whether first-grade seatwork or high school homework, assignments that have been completed and marked give an excellent picture of the quality of the educational program in a classroom. An analytic checklist adapted from Brown (1984) is described below.

Product analysis can be done away from the classroom by the teacher alone. It is best done in conjunction with observation in the classroom, with the involvement of the student. The questions and products can also be used as the basis for teacher interviews, but a word of caution is necessary.

continued on p. 140 (after Figure 2)

Figure 2

Behavioral Checklist for Determining Match of Student to Class or School

Students can "make it" in schools or classes where their behavior or performance matches the expectations of the teacher or leaders. However, where there are serious mismatches between school expectation and student behavior, several logical possibilities follow:

___ 1. **Some school, classroom or teacher expectations can be changed.**
The rules, curriculum or classroom expectations can be examined to determine which are most critical to the purposes of the class. Some changes might even be made on a trial basis for further evaluation.

___ 2. **Some student behaviors can be changed.**
Whether from motivational, skill development or information level problems, someone(s) must be charged with *teaching* and evaluating the specific deficit areas.

___ 3. **The school or classrooms may simply be too problematic for the student.**
Where no changes are possible, there is a real question about the appropriateness of the student/school-class match. If other values are involved in keeping the student in a clearly inappropriate situation, these values or policies should be noted.

___ 4. **Supportive services can be employed to reduce the mismatch.**
For example, a parallel alternative curriculum could be used, additional A-V materials supplied, peer tutoring employed, extended skill practice arranged or materials pre-viewing used.

___ 5. _____

_____

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Various instruments or methods can be used to determine the extent of student-program matches. The example following has several advantages:

1. Initial categories and behaviors are suggested, but they are not exhaustive. All categories may be modified to suit local needs. This checklist primes the pump.
2. Not every behavior deserves or can get local attention. A ranking or sorting of behaviors may be derived from coding the behaviors noted.
3. Numerical values may or may not be assigned. If a data base is needed, then the descriptive statistics can serve for program and/or student development and evaluation.
4. Both positive and negative factors may be recorded.
5. Specific behaviors are noted, thus leading to instructional programming.
6. Group and/or individual summaries can be derived from the data.

Figure 2, cont.

Behavioral Checklist for Determining Match of Student/Class-School

(Sample adapted from Dawson, McLeod and Mathews, 1976)

Purpose: The purpose of this checklist is to determine the kind of match that exists—or does not exist—between the abilities and behaviors of a student and the requirements of a specific classroom, teacher or school.

Directions:

___ 1. Please glance over the categories and behaviors that are suggested. Note that there is room to add behaviors you believe are more important for your specific class or program. There is also room at the end to comment further and summarize information. Modify the sheet before you begin to code the behaviors and student abilities or performance.

___ 2. In the "Teacher Code" column, use the appropriate number to indicate how important the particular behavior is to success in your class or program. You might wish to consider the behavior in terms of students who have been very successful in your class. Rate each behavior to correspond to one of these four categories:

4 = Essential to success
3 = Important for success
2 = Helpful for success
1 = Not required for success.

___ 3. Either (a) or (b):
(a) for all behaviors . . .
(b) For all behaviors coded as 3 or 4 . . .
. . . rate the student under consideration. Use the following code for the column marked as "Student Code":

4 = Meets standards adequately
3 = Somewhat within class range
2 = Has done or shown, but is inconsistent
1 = Has never shown this behavior

___ 4. Subtract the code number in the "Student Code" column from the code number in the "Teacher Code" column. Write this remainder in the "Diff" (for "Difference") column.

___ 5. If the remainder in the "Diff" column is a +1, +2 or +3, then put a checkmark (✓) in the " ✓ if Sign" (Check if Significant) column.

___ 6. Further comment may be made in the space provided, or at the end of the questionnaire/checklist.

___ 7. If desired or needed, summarize the data appropriately; devise a program plan; verify the information given; expand the information given through personal interviews; discuss the information with the student or other relevant people; or use the data in pre-post program evaluation.

___ 8. Suggested formats for data summaries are provided as an appendix to the checklist sample.

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
A. Schedule Related Behaviors:					
1. Attends regularly					
2. Attends on time					
3. Knows what to do when a. late					
b. absent					
4. _____					
B. Material/Tool Related Behaviors:					
1. Has working pencil/pen					
2. Has notebook					
3. Has book(s)					
4. Has paper suitable for tasks					
5. Has miscellaneous materials related to the day's tasks					
6. Knows where to a. find materials/tools					
b. put materials/tools away after use					
7. Uses materials/tools with proper a. care					
b. skill					
c. safety					
8. _____					
C. Group Work Behaviors:					
1. Works individually/independently					
2. Works with one other person					
3. Works in groups of a. less than 5					
b. less than 10					
c. 10 or more					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
4. Appropriate interactions with peers in classroom					
5. Reacts to peer provokes appropriately when they are a. physical					
b. verbal					
6. Participates appropriately in group discussions					
7. Reads material in front of group					
8. Takes on share of group project					
9. _____					
D. Behaviors Related to Presence in Class:					
1. Responds to bell by being in classroom and attending to teacher/task					
2. Enters room appropriately					
3. Sits at own desk or stays at work station					
4. Raises hand or gets attention appropriately					
5. Uses free or unstructured time well					
6. Has appropriate voice level					
7. Understands classroom "rules"					
8. Conforms to most classroom rules					
9. Dresses reasonably for school/class					
10. Is reasonably groomed/clean					
11. Reacts appropriately to teacher directives					
12. Reacts appropriately to teacher/peer statements					
13. Leaves room appropriately a. when directed					
b. at end of class					
14. Volunteers help to others					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
E. Assignment/Project Related Behaviors					
1. Knows nature of assignment/project requirements a. content					
b. format					
2. Clarifies/verifies assignment or project requirements a. Asks appropriate questions					
b. writes notes about assignments					
3. Understands rationale for assignment					
4. Knows how to do the assignment a. content					
b. mechanics					
c. use of appropriate resources					
5. Starts assignment within reasonable time limits					
6. Does assignment "neatly"					
7. Verifies or checks work before handing in as completed a. knows how					
b. does					
8. Works at reasonable pace					
9. Accepts constructive feedback a. understands					
b. has good attitude toward					
c. uses					
10. Hands in completed work/project					
11. Revises product/assignment if needed a. knows how					
b. completes revision					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
12. Able to deal with grades received a. has appropriate attitude toward					
b. knows procedure for changing					
c. uses appropriate change procedures					
13. Is responsible for work missed a. knows how to find out what to do					
b. makes up work					
14. Seeks extra-credit assignments					
15. _____					
F. Behaviors Related to Test-Taking					
1. Studies content on a daily basis with tests in mind a. knows appropriate study methods					
b. uses appropriate study methods					
2. Shows appropriate attitude toward tests					
3. Understands various test formats a. multiple choice					
b. true/false					
c. short answer					
d. fill in blanks					
e. matching					
f. essay					
g. identifyng parts of diagrams					
4. Can study according to formats a. multiple choice					
b. true/false					
c. fill in blanks					
d. short answer					
e. matching					
f. essay					
g. identifying parts of diagrams					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
5. Knows how to prepare for tests					
a. with appropriate review					
b. with adequate physical energy					
c. with good planning of time use					
6. Can use alternatives to written tests					
a. knows alternatives available					
b. makes arrangements for alternative					
7. Is responsible for missed tests					
a. knows how to find out what to do					
b. makes up test					
8. Able to deal with grades received					
a. has appropriate attitude toward					
b. knows procedure for changing					
c. uses appropriate change procedures					
9. Uses returned tests as feedback					
a. for anticipating future formats					
b. for anticipating future content					
c. for anticipating future study needs					
10. Asks for help appropriately					
11. _____					
G. Behaviors Related to Obtaining Content					
1. Able to attend to class activity for appropriate length of time					
2. Maintains attention toward teacher or leader-directed activity					
3. Listens to lectures/discussions					
4. Able to copy notes or other information					
a. from board					
b. from overhead					
c. from books					
d. from misc. sources					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
5. Uses IMC resources appropriately a. understands range of resources					
b. uses appropriate resources					
6. Picks up information through a. reading/studying independently					
b. observation of demonstrations or A-V materials					
c. "doing"—projects/products					
d. listening to teacher/leader					
e. discussion					
7. Has experience with content area a. from reading/studying					
b. from hands-on or first-hand experience					
8. Maintains interest in class/topics					
9. Persists in trying to learn skill/content					
10. Tries to use or apply content outside of classroom situation					
11. _____					
H. Behaviors Related to Self-Expression					
1. Has adequate writing skills a. handwriting					
b. typing					
c. spelling					
d. grammar					
e. vocabulary					
f. uses appropriate formats					
g. organizes material appropriately					
2. Has adequate speaking skills a. grammar					
b. content vocabulary					
c. organizes material appropriately					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
3. Has adequate performing/demonstration skills a. performs relevant aspects of procedure					
b. uses performance as a way to show what is known					
4. _____					
I. Study Related Behaviors					
1. Knows how to use/plan time wisely a. understands how to plan					
b. uses time management plans					
2. Uses appropriate notetaking skills a. knows appropriate formats					
b. takes notes					
c. reorganizes notes for various study purposes					
d. maintains note files					
3. Keeps adequate records of study, e.g., notebook					
4. Relates new to old information					
5. Knows study routines, e.g., SQ3R a. understands how to use					
b. uses consistently					
6. _____					
J. Building Related Behaviors					
1. Walks in halls					
2. Appropriate noise level in halls					
3. Has pass when in halls a. knows how to obtain pass					
b. shows pass as required					
4. Does not pear or shout into classrooms or offices					
5. Moves from one room to another within reasonable time limits					

Figure 2, cont.

	Teacher Code	Student Code	Diff	if Sign	Comment
6. Responds appropriately to adult-initiated interactions					
7. Talk appropriately to building personnel					
8. Stays in appropriate school areas					
9. Able to sit quietly in office area					
10. Interacts appropriately with peers while in non-classroom areas a. verbally					
b. physically					
11. Uses behaviors appropriate to area(s)					
12. Knows how to use appropriate resource personnel in the school					
13. Leaves building within reasonable time limit a. when instructed					
b. when bell rings					
14. _____					
K. Behaviors Related to Participation in Extracurricular Activities					
1. Knows range of extracurricular activities					
2. Shows interest in some extracurricular participation					
3. Participates in extracurricular activities					
4. _____					

Behaviors that are not related to success in the classroom, but cause some concern on behalf of the student:

Figure 2, cont.

Match-Mismatch Checklist: Worksheet for Summary and Plan

Rank	Major Mismatch Concerns	Suggested Plan for Follow-Up

Use of Positive Matches

continued from p. 128

Teachers who conduct interviews about any seatwork/homework, or who ask to collect permanent products, may find that the classroom teacher is extremely suspicious and defensive because the material is so close to the heart of instructional evaluation. It's usually necessary to explain that you are trying to find out about the kind of study needed in the classroom so that skills can be taught to a student who is experiencing or presenting problems. This is only partially true, no matter how we try to disguise it. Such partial truths are to some extent an example of game-playing on the part of the person doing the assessment. It somehow seems better, though, than saying that you want to find out how reasonable, substantial, fair or important the assignments given may be, and whether or not the teacher is applying appropriate instructional and classroom management techniques.

The following cue questions are helpful in developing clinical judgment in looking at finished and marked assignments in or from the classroom.

1. **What is the apparent source of the task?** There are three usual sources of classroom assignments. Ideally, the assignment is related to the instructional situation. This means that the teacher or the material has provided instruction before, during or after the product was assigned. In such cases, the assignment was likely to have been thoughtfully designed to be helpful to the student.

   Sometimes tasks are routinely provided in a commercial or district sequence. This usually means that the task is not likely to be related to specific instruction, and has a questionable relationship to the obstensible goal of the assignment. For example, students may spend a great deal of time filling out page 22 about vowel diagraphs, when the task is probably not going to help their reading competence.

   At other times tasks are general in nature, and are unrelated to any instruction or sequence. Teachers may give a paper to the students to complete "for fun," or just to keep the students occupied. Many commercial supplemental materials are of this nature.
2. **What is the apparent purpose of the task?** Sometimes assignments are given to determine mastery or non-mastery of the material. This would be a test or a test-like situation, and a good sign *if* the test is related to instruction. Pre-tests are also indicative that instruction might be planned on student needs or levels of competence.

   Sometimes the assignment is given for "practice." That word is usually a euphemism for busywork. When no feedback is provided from the assignment, this is sure to be the case. Unfortunately, other instructional opportunities are lost when too much time is spent on busywork. When feedback is given when the assignment has been completed, the practice intent was probably true.
3. **What is the format of the task?** The format involves both content items and non-content requirements. Non-content requirements include things like putting your name and date in a certain place, being neat and clean, using a certain size and slant of writing, or having problems in a certain alignment.
4. **How did or might the student learn the task format?** In many cases the format, both of content and non-content items, must be inferred by the student. Good teachers make sure that the student has a model of the format, and see that the format is rewarded when produced.
5. **What are the directions for the assignment?** Of interest here is the content of the directions — which may be too complex — and also the source of the directions. If they were given orally by the teacher, was the classroom in chaos at the time (when the bell rang)? Could the student hear? Was he or she paying attention at the time? Could the student read and understand the directions? Lack of reading and understanding the directions is one of the common causes of problems with seatwork (Rush, 1970). We would also want to know if the student is merely to "understand" the directions from previous assignments—that were perhaps never understood in the first place.
6. **What are the language requirements?** Both form and content are important here, in reading, writing, speaking and listening. While attention is usually concentrated on reading and writing, the classroom "conversation" of the student may be equally important. For example, a student who does not seem to be paying attention may need to learn to ask open-ended questions such as, "That was a good point! Could someone please explain more about it?" This type of question does not require a great deal of content, but gives the impression of great interest in the topic—just like cocktail party talk!

7. **What is the teacher's attitude toward assistance with the task or assignment?** This is one of the most critical areas of analysis, for it gives a clear picture of the teacher's attitude toward learning and the purpose of schooling. Many teachers believe that a student who receives assistance is cheating. For example, one student who learned to have someone check his spelling before handing in an English paper received an "F" from the teacher. The teacher knew that he couldn't spell well, and if the spelling was correct, the student must have "cheated," i.e., had some assistance.
8. **What was the nature and source of instructional preparation managed by the teacher?** If not directly instructed, how/when/where was the student to have learned the content?
9. **What was the time allotted for preparation?** As we know, if too much time is allotted for preparation, then students have opportunities to misbehave or daydream. If not enough time is allotted, then the student is likely to receive a poor grade—not for content, but for work that is unfinished. Time-on-task data is helpful in finding out how the student handles the time allotment. Eventually, we also need to know how the student plans for the efficient use of study time.
10. **What is the number of units or items to be completed?** The student must learn to scan assignments to find out the scope of the assignment to plan the use of study time. Further, the student needs to learn that a poor grade doesn't mean that he or she doesn't know the content. The teacher usually "grades" on the basis of the relationship of units-correct to units-completed to units-expected. In a 50 problem page of math items, the student who finishes 25 items, 24 of which are correct, will get the same "F" as the student who finishes all 50 items and gets 24 correct. There are probably qualitative differences between the students in math, and the picture is misleading, both to observers and to the student.
11. **How does the teacher evaluate work?** This factor is very difficult. Evaluation is often synonymous with marking. When everyone is playing the usual school game, it means that everyone does their part, i.e., the teacher usually gives the assignment; the student does the assignment and turns it in; the teacher evaluates it, marks and records a grade, and gives the assignment back to the student; the student gets rid of the assignment; and the teacher gives a new assignment.

    It takes an incredible change in the unwritten rules to reach the point where classroom daily assignments will be used for learning. This would mean that teachers *and* students would have to differentiate *learning* assignments from *testing* assignments. If the assignment is truly a learning experience, then it will not be treated as a daily test. In the first grade, the red measle marks of mistakes will vanish as the teacher uses errors diagnostically and lets the student correct the work. The "grade," of course, would not be based on the first attempt, but on the corrected paper.
12. **What feedback is given to students?** We are interested here in the form, the content and the recording of feedback by the teacher and student. The use of feedback from assignments is one of the best ways to study for tests. The practice of learning to use feedback from assignments can be started in the first grade, even if they don't relate to tests, but to product revision.
13. **What kind of follow-up is provided to the assignment?** Follow-up should be communicated back to the student, so that he or she is rewarded not only for the correctness of the assignment, but also for engaging in good study habits.

Special teachers are used to examining the assignments that come to students in terms of their level of difficulty, and for the tutoring effort needed to help the student complete the assignment. The suggestions made above represent some of the additional information that can be gleaned from these assignments.

The Individual Student

More detailed analysis of student abilities may also be conducted in special skills such as notetaking, time management, test taking and verbal interaction. These analyses are often made outside the regular classroom. Many ideas for such assessment are found in books that deal with "study skills."

It is also important to find out if the student can do the work and doesn't, or if the student simply can't do the work. The principal techniques to make this discrimination are contingency management and stimulus control. Either the student can be rewarded for performance with a ton of M&M's, or *doing* the task can be made so intrinsically attractive that the student will want to do it. For example, a student may be told that if the first five examples are completed correctly, the rest need not be finished, or that only five examples of the student's choice need be done. On the other hand, the student may want to work on the task if a good friend can work with him or her, or if the "work" is disguised as a game.

It is also true that some students are excellent "game players," so that they are able to manipulate the system by removing themselves from any responsibility for constructive learning. In this case, the task is to use their skills for more constructive purposes. Some teachers make them coaches for students who don't know that a game is being played in school.

Intervention Description

There are certain things that teachers can do to teach, reward and maintain good-student behaviors, and there are certain things that students must learn to do. The first part of this section provides suggestions that are more relevant for the teacher's major responsibility, and the second part deals primarily with the student.

Interventions Under the Control of the Teacher

Arrangement of the Physical Environment. Quite often, students must wait for the teacher to get materials needed for class. It is possible to put materials in reach of students, and to role play and reward proper use of the materials. Single desks may be placed together for group study. Charts used by individuals can be reproduced for keeping in a notebook rather than as room decoration.

Clarifying Expectations and Realities. If the teacher can take a light approach to the whole topic, he or she can be honest with the students and explain what the teacher-pleasing behaviors are in that classroom. A check on the teacher's perceptions can be made periodically by having students discuss the topic in class—as it applies to that classroom. If some of the expectations are from habit only, then they might be changed.

One teacher decided that there was no real reason that students had to work alone all the time, and arranged for partnerships to be set up for work completion.

Selecting Materials that Promote Independence. Some materials must be completed totally under the teacher's direction, while others can be done more or less independently. Any materials that have self-corrective features, or for which self-correcting features can be adapted, are helpful.

At the secondary level, where outlining textbooks may be required, the teacher should assure that the text is outlineable. Some special teachers teach skills that the student cannot use simply because the materials are so poor. In this case, it might be necessary to teach students what to do when their strategies cannot be applied.

Arranging Assignments to Account for Various Elements. The teacher can modify assignments in many ways beyond the conventional "fewer problems." For example, seatwork or homework may have space provided for recording estimated and real time of the task. It may also provide for comments about the task.

The teacher may also wish to begin the concept of "revision" that is so popular in written expression. All products, no matter what the academic area, can be revised before being handed in for final grading.

Grading practices may be modified to include specific study skills as part of the criteria. For example, more than one point can be given for a correct sentence or problem, making it possible for the student to earn some points toward success and use task analysis skills.

Teachers may also learn to "grade" group or partnership efforts. When groups are used to complete seatwork, the groups should be changed often to be sure that groupings are not unfair to students.

Changing Organizational Patterns. Not every group needs to be an achievement group, as in reading. There are many other bases for grouping, e.g., friendship groups, interest groups or skill need groups. These can let students know that there are many ways to go about learning.

In addition to grouping, the teacher may also want to initiate peer tutoring or partner learning strategies. *Increasing Student Achievement through Peer Tutoring* (Pierce, Stahlbrand and Bryant-Armstrong, 1984) is a how-to-do-it book for teachers to use in conducting structured, behavioralized peer tutoring programs either in or out of the classroom.

It might also be possible to reorganize the classroom program for unit teaching in the elementary school, or for a core curriculum approach at the secondary level. Such a unified studies structure provides excellent opportunities for students to learn and practice constructive independence and group interdependence. It also provides the teacher with an opportunity to differentiate assignments for individuals.

Attend to Good Instructional Practice. Good instructional practices are designed to help students master content and use study skills. Nearly every textbook on methods or teacher education contains suggestions for instructional improvement. Nearly any book with J. Brophy as an author or a co-author will be helpful to the teacher.

Direct Instruction in Aspects of Independent Study. Test-taking, how to do homework and specific learning strategies can be taught in the classroom. These may be monitored during structured study time in the classroom. Time management, task analysis, etc. may also be taught directly in conjunction with the classroom program.

Notebook Requirement. The notebook is one requirement that can be very helpful to both student and teacher. It can verify student effort, verify teacher effort when students believe they have been unfairly treated, organize content for further study, as for tests, and can be used as a device for troubleshooting study problems of students. Even in first grade, students can begin to keep notebooks that are monitored by peers and the teacher. Some of the items that may be placed in notebooks include color charts, number charts, handwriting models, word lists, directions charts, records of time management, class notes, calendars with assignments and deadlines scheduled, test samples, handouts, class rosters, make-up procedures, classroom expectations, sources of assistance and homework or seatwork papers.

Assessment. Teachers can constantly assess the study behaviors of their students, how much responsibility they are taking, etc. They may also engage in self-assessment to determine areas in need of work. Sometimes these can be incorporated into teaching improvement plans in the school or district.

Interventions Under the Control of the Student

The methodologies for teaching independent study behaviors include role playing, cognitive behavior modification and behavior modification. Where models are needed, it is often good to use the student as his or her own model through the medium of film or video. Instant film is desirable simply for immediate feedback. Students may have picture series in their notebooks, showing and telling about *them* actively engaged in good student behaviors.

The content of learning to become more independent in the classroom includes skills and strategies such as those noted below.

Criteria of Acceptability. The student must know both what must be learned, and how it is to be shown. The "shown" includes homework, tests, notebook-keeping, demonstrations, interviews, seatwork and class discussion.

Task Analysis. Subtask ordering is necessary so the student can complete smaller pieces of a task. Further, in learning to ask for help appropriately, the student must identify the specific problematic part of the task. The student who says to the teacher, "I don't get it!" is going to make quite a different impression than the one who says, "I need help with the last part of this problem, Ms. Bradley. Do you have time to help me now, or when would it be convenient for you?"

Knowledge of the Product Format. The format of the product makes a difference in the type of study used. Millman and Pauk (1969) show some of the relationships between the type of task and the method of study. For example, the use of index cards for learning addition facts is often helpful when rote association must be made.

Aids to Memory. Although the teacher is not likely to reinforce this skill, students in real life must learn to use aids to memory, such as checklists of task steps, hand-held calculators and note cards. The more socially acceptable the prosthetic device, the better.

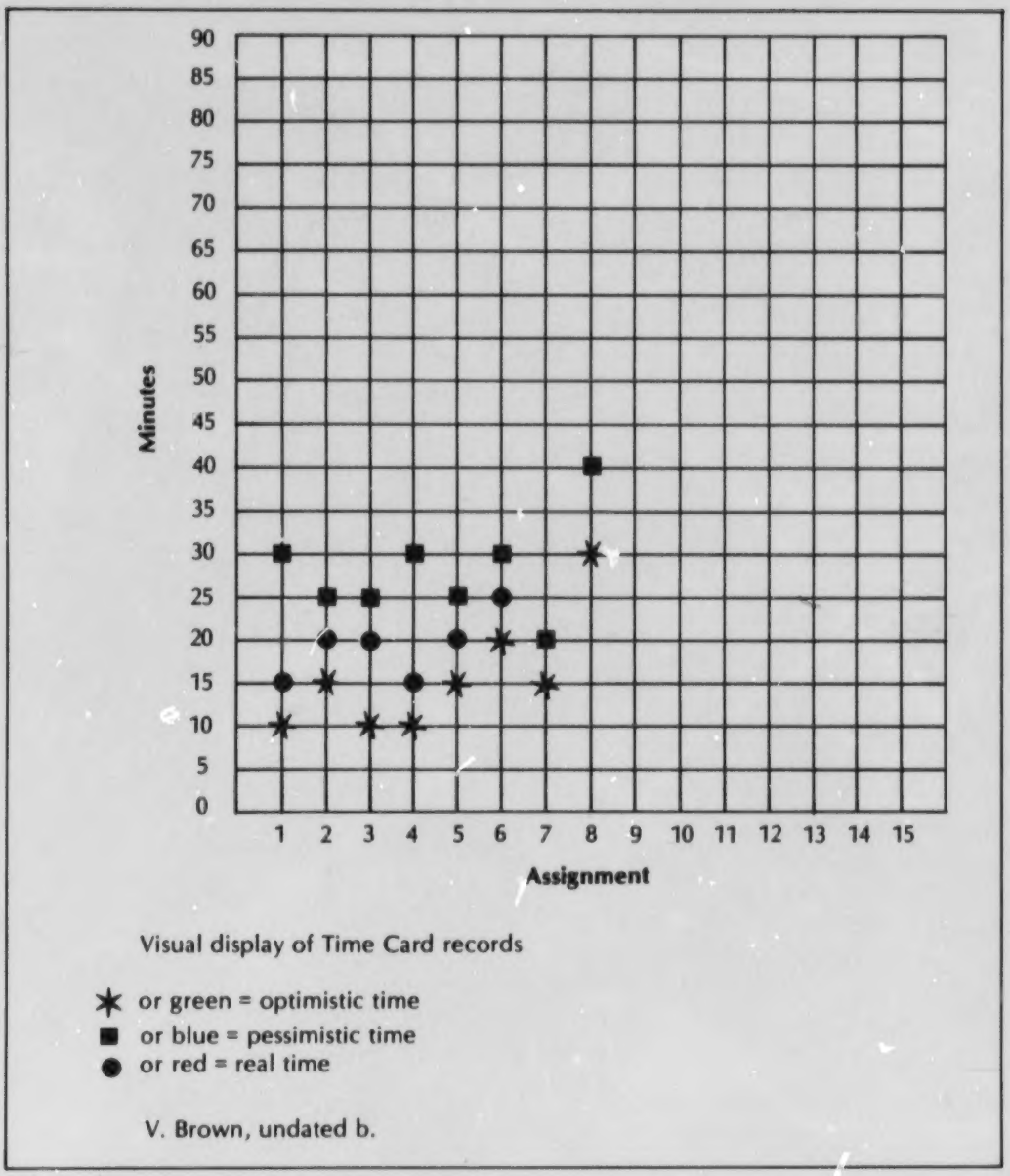
Checklists and reminders may be kept in the student's notebook, and checklist sheets may be included in seatwork or homework tasks.

Means of Checking or Verifying. Verifying the accuracy of one's work is a lifetime skill, as with income tax preparation. Yet, the idea of independence is often misconstrued as, "Do it by yourself!" Students often need someone to check to make sure that all goes well before turning in the final assignment. They may check for spelling, grammar, accuracy, etc. Some teachers have begun to use peer-checking of non-content factors such as format and perhaps spelling. If there is a problem with the factor, then the paper is returned to the peer checker.

Time Management. These skills are high priority for instruction, and once taught, they need extensive monitoring to maintain. Even for adults, time management is a problem. *Figure 3* shows a sample of a chart designed to get students to decrease the gap between estimated and real time for tasks.

Figure 3

Chart Sample for Time Graph



Physical Conditions. The student can take responsibility for finding the appropriate conditions for supporting his or her own study. Social skill training in resisting peer pressure is often involved here.

Self-Monitoring and Self-Reinforcement. Workman's *Teaching Behavioral Self-Control to Students* (1982) deals with both of these topics for academic and non-academic behaviors. In many cases, self-monitoring and self-reinforcement need not be delayed, but may be taught immediately.

Product Revision. This critical skill often needs the cooperation of the classroom teacher to set the habit. Rough-drafting of more than written language is a perfectly legitimate procedure to be used for important assignments.

Test-Taking Strategies. Feder's *The Complete Guide to Taking Tests* (1979) contains most of the material needed for this topic. Barnstorf's factors that influence failure in tests is a good guide for students and for teachers to use diagnostically (*Figure 4*).

"**Study Skills**". Traditional skills such as notetaking (D. Brown, 1977) or outlining can be taught with the content at hand. The reference notebook for young children is an early attempt to use appropriate skills, and handouts that have room for notes built in would be a way to help older students.

If it is at all possible, older students should be given their own textbooks for learning to "talk to the author" and for highlighting important information. Requiring that students keep textbooks clear of marks is educationally penny wise and pound foolish. Learning to make appropriate notes in books is one of the most useful study skills with lifelong value.

Being a "good student" requires more than academic competence. Survival skills in "playing the school game" are necessary from preschool through graduate school.

Implementation, Generalization and Maintenance

As teachers or other school personnel work with some of these concepts and suggestions, they will find that students and colleagues are not particularly happy with changing their routines. The most difficult part of these interventions is getting started. Something in the curriculum must go for something else to be added. Yet, it's trite but true that in terms of value, these skills are probably more important than much of the curriculum in classrooms today. Change is usually slow, but dramatic.

Changes in the school game should ideally be made at the beginning of some new period, such as the beginning of the school year or semester. Teachers can capitalize on the "unknown-ness" that goes with new situations.

Programs in study behaviors will find wide support among parents, who often verbalize the notion that their children know more than the school gives them credit for. In addition, parents are happy to know that their children are receiving instruction in important skills such as time management. Quite often, parents or guardians will be interested in extending the program to the home, where homework is sometimes a problem.

It may be that implementing a good-student behavior program is impossible in your situation. In that case, it is even more important to teach children to play the school game. It may be that the students will need to learn to modify the teacher's behavior, using behavior modification techniques. Such a program is especially appropriate for the disruptive student, for like the teacher who is learning to be a behavior modifier, the behavior of the modifier must be kept under incredible control. Many of the books designed for parent groups can be easily adapted for students to work through with an experienced adult. It is important to deal with both legal and moral aspects of behavior modification in any program initiated.

Where programs are set up, it is important to include good students who can interpret some of the expectations, and who can suggest their own modifications of study strategies. Partner learning programs may be used for this purpose.

The range of behaviors that promote independence in students has been merely tapped in this chapter. Those more experienced with this topic are teaching students to do their own assessments, i.e., to give themselves and each other a variety of tests. Especially with students who go from one setting to another, it is important that they not be left to the mercy of whatever evaluation skills and interpretations are handy in the setting. Students who learn about test construction and understand the results of several self-tests of their own abilities and aptitudes are in a much better position to participate effectively in any "treatment" program designed for them, and to give or withhold truly informed consent.

The special teacher who deals with teaching students to play the school game and to learn to be good students cannot possibly do all the work. Actually, the responsibility for such programs should reside in the regular classrooms where content is being taught. One of the best ways to get interest in using some of the strategies and skills is to model them yourself in some instructional situation. It may be that the special

Figure 4

Factors that Influence Failure

	Before the test	During the test	After the test
Course design; and/or Instructor	____test expectations unclear ____instructor presented ideas unclearly, examples: ____inadequate study guides ____textbook wasn't clear ____textbook, in-class material not related ____instructor not available or unwilling to answer questions ____study sessions not helpful ____other, specify	____poor physical conditions ____inadequate time allowed ____test questions poorly phrased ____test did not cover expected material ____test did not cover significant material ____test directions were unclear ____other, specify	____adequate feedback not provided ____not enough opportunity to go over test ____test scored improperly or incorrectly ____other, specify
Self	____used study time poorly ____didn't read text or mark adequately (or hand-outs) ____didn't review ____didn't attend 100% ____didn't participate in class ____didn't attend study sessions ____didn't take adequate notes ____didn't pay attention to class material ____didn't predict test questions ____negative attitude ____other pressures on my mind ____other, specify	____my test questions were not good predictors ____couldn't concentrate ____didn't follow directions ____felt tense ____felt fatigued ____didn't plan my time well ____other, specify	____felt disappointed, angry ____didn't pay attention to feedback ____didn't go over my test carefully to learn from my mistakes ____other

From Barnstorf, T. *Study Skills Guide*. Minneapolis: Burge Publishing Co., 1977.

teacher will need to set up demonstration sites for some of the skills to be shown. It's unlikely that anyone will become enough of a superteacher to put all of them to practice.

Independence behaviors cannot be taught in a scope and sequence fashion, for only the content becomes more complex. It seems necessary to consider a student's independence status and study or work habits from the earliest days of school. The behaviors should be directly addressed in the IEP of students being considered for special programs. In addition, students who are to move from one setting to another, as from residential or special class settings to more "normal" settings, will find that skills in psyching out the classroom and the teacher are critical to a successful transition. In any case, students who present or experience problems in these areas do not need admonition, but instruction. Application of some of the ideas presented in this chapter should be helpful in developing instructional components in independence training.

Appendix A

Sample Formats for Data from Match-Mismatch Checklist

Questions:

1. How does an individual student fare across teachers?
2. What is the range of differences in various classes?

Student _____

Behaviors

(List behaviors or code letters/numbers for behaviors used in the checklist.)
(Only significant behaviors might also be listed.)

Teacher #

1		2		3		4		5		6	
T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D	T / S	D

Interpretation

May examine mean or modal or extremes of teacher expectations; mean or modal or extremes of student behaviors; or significant difference scores.

Question:

1. What is the range of student match-mismatch in any particular classroom?

Teacher _____

Behaviors

May list all or only significant behaviors in this column.
Note Teacher Code

Student #

1	2	3	4	5	. . .
	Codes for Student Here				

Interpretation

Examine range.

Question:

1. What resources do we have to deal with significant problems of mismatch?

Behavior of Concern: _____
No more than two related behaviors (if there are any): _____

_____

In each case, consider resources immediately available + resources available *if* X, Y or Z were changed:

Money:

Space:

Time:

Personnel:

Materials and Supplies:

Curriculum Content:

Curriculum Methodology:

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Teaching Social Routines to Behaviorally Disordered Youth

by Richard S. Neel

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Introduction

The goals of educational interventions for children with behavior disorders are to replace socially unacceptable patterns of behavior and increase the number and types of acceptable behavior patterns a child has in his or her repertoire. A number of strategies can be used to accomplish these ends. Behaviorally disordered children are labeled such because they use behavior patterns that are unacceptable to others. These patterns, or routines, can be viewed by others as disordered, disturbed, neurotic or psychotic. Traditionally, the goal of instruction or therapy was to eliminate those disordered behaviors. This focus on elimination has left the area of replacement virtually ignored. Only recently has teaching prosocial behaviors emerged as a major alternative.

This monograph is a collection of strategies that focus on the development of behaviors that enable a child to function more effectively in his or her environment. Teaching social routines is one of those approaches. It differs from other approaches in three ways. First, teaching social routines focuses on the function of critical effect of behaviors. Second, instructional targets and contexts come from the child's current environments. The third difference is a more fundamental one. This technique is untried. Most of the components have empirical evidence to support them, but the system as a whole is experimental. This chapter provides the rationale for using social routines and a detailed description of how to use the system. It is hoped that as you and others use the system, more refinements will be made. I offer this program because I believe that further refinements of current systems will not greatly alter the depressing educational outcomes they achieve. A fundamentally different approach must be developed.

The notion of teaching social routines to behaviorally disordered youth is a relatively new one. It comes from work with severely handicapped youth. The basic idea of the program is that any social skill must be taught so that it is currently successful for the user, and in a manner that closely resembles the actual situations or settings where the skill is likely to be required. This approach to educating behaviorally disordered youth shifts the focus of intervention from teaching "good behavior" to teaching effective and reliable behavior. Instructional goals are determined by analyzing the child's home, community and school environments, and determining which results are being produced; that is, what the child gains or values from the behavior. An instructional strategy is designed that will enable the child to continue to realize that same result during instruction using a more acceptable set of behaviors. This strategy of determining and maintaining the critical effect (White, 1980) of a behavior and the reliance on contextual instruction is the basis for all educational planning. An explanation of both of these concepts, along with a rationale for why they are needed follows.

Critical Effects

Every chain of behaviors produces an effect. We fix a meal because we want to be full. We walk because we want to get somewhere. We communicate to be heard and understood. Each of these complex behavior chains is developed and refined as we grow up in order to produce the effects we desire. As long as a chain produces the desired result, it will be used. If we can learn a more efficient way to reach the same result, we will use it.

As we mature, we develop a variety of patterns or chains to produce results that are important to us. For example, we develop several different ways to "get full." We can tell someone to bring us food, go to the refrigerator and get it ourself, go to a restaurant, go to the market, steal it from a store, panhandle it on the street corner, or look in garbage cans. Each of these routines may work. Obviously, some are more desirable than others, but if the need is great enough, and the obvious avenues to getting full are blocked or unsuccessful, the less desirable ways will be used. These less desirable ways are what others call behavior disorders.

Disordered behaviors, then, are conceived of as successful chains or routines of unacceptable behaviors. The success or failure of a routine does not depend on its acceptance by others, but its ability to produce a desired result. The effects they produce are the same effects that all of us desire to produce (attention, reward, satisfaction, companionship). The main difference is that the behaviors a child chooses

It is not seeking attention that gets a child labeled disordered, it is how and when they seek it that causes the problem.

Removing a child from the natural setting is a mistake. When you place a child in an isolated classroom, you are altering the problem significantly.

to use are not desired or accepted by the people in that child's environment. Take for example the desired effect of getting attention. Many behaviorally disordered children have labels of "needs too much attention" or "fights and argues to gain attention." Traditional teaching approaches try to reduce this attention-getting behavior and increase academic skills. The consensus is that needing attention is bad, or if not bad, then, needing it "that much" surely is. Yet we all need attention and have developed a wide range of behaviors to get it when we feel we need it. We dress and talk certain ways, memorize jokes, read *Time* and *Newsweek*, listen to the radio so we can tell anyone the chance of rain and the temperature in Miami. We develop expertise in cooking, sewing, fishing, auto mechanics, plumbing, stamp collecting, bridge and coupon collecting so we can share them with others. All of us have even developed a refined system of embellishing the facts to make a good story. It is not seeking attention that gets a child labeled disordered, it is how and when they seek it that causes the problem.

When changing a problem routine, it is necessary to teach another routine that will accomplish the same desired effect. Teaching social routines provides a system to help you identify the critical effect that each problem behavior is producing for the child (e.g. protesting, contacting others, having fun, getting attention, getting someone to do something), and then teaches the child a set of alternate, more acceptable routines that will produce the same or a similar result. Every activity and skill that needs to be taught can and should be integrated into a routine leading to a critical effect for the child. To do otherwise is to invite more problems in motivation, maintenance and generalization.

Form and Function

As stated earlier, behavior problems produce an effect for a child. The problem behavior is called form. The effect it produces is called function. Many different forms can be used to produce the same effect. Also, a particular behavior (form) may have more than one purpose (function). Since the purpose may vary, the desired replacement behaviors may also vary. For example, truancy could be an escape behavior, an attention-seeking device, or the result of competing reinforcers. Each of these functions should be remediated differently. A teacher would decide which function the truancy was producing, and then replace it with another more desirable routine that would achieve the same ends. Without knowledge of the purpose of the routine, it is unlikely that an adequate replacement will be taught.

A curriculum that uses critical effects assesses the results desired by the child, the results expected in his or her community, and the particular behaviors the child currently uses to produce those effects. The child is then taught how to achieve the same results in the environment using more desirable forms. The child's instructional program is truly individualized.

Contextual Instruction

Another component of the social routine teaching format is reliance on environmental contexts. Children should be taught new behaviors where the problem behavior occurs (Walker, 1981). To remove a child from the natural setting is a mistake. A cursory look at the generalization data of behavioral programs shows the fallacy of educating in isolated, contrived settings (Stokes and Baer, 1977). First, we all have seen the teaching of "bus riding" to little children in a pre-school class. The chairs are lined up in rows of twos, there is a cardboard picture of the bus tied to the outside row, the bus driver is a warm, friendly, cooperative and patient person, and the children are taught to sing "The Wheels on the Bus Go Round, Round, Round." Then the child tries to ride the real bus with his or her mother. The schedule is confusing, the mother is in a hurry and slightly intimidated by the ride, the child cannot find a seat for two, the driver is in a hurry, and the mother doesn't have the right change. What are the chances that this child has learned the necessary social forms at school? There are several reasons why this lack of generalization occurs.

First, deviant behaviors are thought of as consistent entities. When a child hits others, each hit is considered equivalent to any other hit. Frequency of response becomes the basis of most interventions. Unfortunately, most overt behaviors are not equivalent. They occur in a particular context, and this context is an integral part of the behavior. When you remove a child from the problem situation and put him or her

in an isolated classroom, you are altering the problem significantly. The changes you produce in the controlled setting are not predictive of behaviors when the control is removed. Failure to recognize the role context plays in defining a problem will continue to produce changes that will not generalize.

To be socially successful, a child has to know not only what to do, but also when and when not to do it. The timing of social responses depends on the child's ability to read the situation. The child must be able to accurately determine the desired responses from the natural cues that exist in the situation. Often these cues are vague and change rapidly in subtle ways. Discriminations learned in a classroom or isolated setting may not be the same ones required in a less formal social setting. Perceived growth on the part of the child is often an illusion that quickly disappears outside the school setting or after instruction has stopped. It is impossible to teach a child the correct behaviors without the presence of the natural cues and consequences. Any other effort is a simulation at best, and usually fails to produce the desired routines. How we teach children to play games is a good example. Often when we decide a child doesn't play well with others, we try to teach him or her how to play recess games. We teach the rules, provide some motor skill training, and then add a heavy amount of coercion of the other children. Everyone gives Johnny a turn, doesn't laugh at his mistakes, and, of course, follows all the rules according to Hoyle. Then recess is over, and the kids are playing at a park or after school. What happens? The rules go out the window, since every kid knows that those who are biggest or own the ball always set the rules. Johnny is either left out, harangued for every mistake, or worse yet, teased and ridiculed for his lack of skills and inability to handle teasing. Again, the wrong forms were taught in the wrong place.

Another reason generalization fails to occur is that we often engineer the school environment so that the problem behavior does not occur. We assess the child extensively, design academic work at the child's level, give prompt and frequent feedback, add liberal amounts of reward and attention, give a clear set of expectations and instructions and then notice that the problem behaviors seem to reduce. Such reductions are viewed as growth on the part of the child; but are they? It is much more likely that the change in behaviors occurs because of the artificial changes in the environment. Unfortunately the created environment and the stimuli present in that environment do not occur anywhere else. We create a Disneyland where children who are behavior disordered can play. We do not give them the opportunity to learn new behaviors in the presence of the stimuli that caused them problems in the first place (e.g. vague clues, unreasonable demands, unclear instructions, competing rewards). These children often fail to develop adequate strategies because they had no opportunity to practice them in actual situations.

Teaching social routines is designed to solve these problems. It focuses on the particular function a child is trying to produce rather than on the form the child is using. Each behavior is taught in natural contexts. Several different routines are taught so that a child will have many routines to use to achieve a particular critical effect. Since there is an immediate effect for the child, he or she exerts more control over the environment and is more motivated to learn the tasks required. Also, the natural cues and consequences that will control and maintain a skill sequence are learned during instruction, so additional generalization training is minimized. Emphasis is on determining which effects a particular child will need, and then designing an individualized program to meet those needs. Teaching in context removes many of the problems that occur when other teaching techniques are used. A detailed description of each step of the process follows. As more people use this system, additional data will be collected. Refinements will be made in the system based on the data.

Assessing Behavioral Problems in Functional Terms

Assessing behavioral problems in functional terms is different than traditional assessments familiar to most of us. First, functional assessments begin by analyzing which social functions a child uses. Next, they determine which particular form a child is using to produce the effect of each function, and what effects it

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We need to determine which effect the child hopes to produce, then teach another more acceptable behavior to produce the same result. Describe the functionality of a behavior from the perspective of the child.

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has on others. Particular attention is given to how many forms the child uses, and how familiar the child is with the unwritten rules of when and how to use them. Finally, the environments where the child uses the form are analyzed. This environmental analysis determines where, when and with whom the child has a problem, and also what alternate behaviors could be used to produce the same or similar effects in that environment.

Social Functions

Social functions are the critical effects that result from engaging in social behaviors. There is no extensive or definitive list of social functions in the literature. Literature on normal development, social competence and handicapped children all provide some evidence on what the necessary social functions might be. From studies of children's communication patterns, we can find different pragmatic functions required to function adequately in the world (Halliday, 1975; Bates, 1976;). Piaget (1955) and others suggest the various activities and stages that children progress through as they develop social competencies. Social curricula developed by Stephens (1982), Goldstein (1980), Hazel (1979), Walker (1982) and others suggest the specific strategies that contribute to successful social interactions. Finally, Voeltz (1980), Brown (1979) and Belamy and Wilcox (1982) have identified some of the critical age-appropriate skills required for minimal participation in society. None of these sources, however, provides a list of functions that could be used to design an effective measure of social functions.

The absence of a definitive list of functions need not, however, prevent us from developing an assessment process. To be effective, the assessment system must measure which functions each child uses, the level of performance within each function, the environments in which the child interacts, and the set of particular forms that are preferred by others in the child's environment. Traditional assessments focus on a series of comprehensive listings that approximate the forms used by normal children. The assessment process is one of determining which level of form the child used, and then teaching the child the next one in the developmental sequence. The problem with this approach is that any one form can represent more than one social function, and that any social effect can be produced by more than one form. Traditional assessment produces curriculum decisions based on developmental forms. Children with behavior problems are frequently taught "the curriculum" regardless of their particular needs. The lessons taught become the end rather than the means. All children are taught to "greet," "negotiate," or "understand themselves" in isolated settings without regard to the effects that knowing these skills has on the child's current social interactions.

The functional assessment system helps the teacher derive instructional targets from each child's current environments. Its goals are to determine the social functioning of each child and then analyze the environments the child accesses. By focusing on the functions rather than the forms, a more individualized program is developed. Each child's desired effects are considered before a particular set of forms is chosen. The environment unique to each child is included in the decision making process. Since it is essential that the critical effect be realized *during* instruction, only forms that will be effective in the child's environment are targeted for instruction.

Social Skills Environmental Inventory

The Social Skills Environmental Inventory is an assessment device that allows the child, his or her parents, and the teacher to decide on the particular social goals most important to the child. The inventory screens each major social function area, then asks parents and teachers to rate the overall functioning of the child in each area. From this information, the three most important areas are selected and they become the IEP goals for that child. Once the priority areas are determined and a series of goals have been written, an in-depth analysis of each problem area is conducted so that a comprehensive instructional plan can be drawn.

The Social Skills Environmental Inventory (*Appendix A*) contains a description of each of the social functions used in the assessment process. A series of examples of each function with a rating score for each example as well as an overall rating of the child's ability to use each function is included. A summary of the various functions and examples is shown in *Table 1*. This form is used to determine how well the child does in each area. This list is not necessarily exhaustive, and other functions that you feel are important to the child or his or her parents should also be considered. After each function is evaluated, the three major problem functions are identified. Each of these functions is then analyzed using the Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form.

Table 1

Social Function

Function	Description	Example Skills
1. Initiate/Gain entry	Behavior that allows a person to gain access to interaction: either to initiate an interaction, to begin an event/exchange, or to enter one already underway.	1. Finding someone to talk to 2. Greeting others 3. Offering assistance 4. Asking for help 5. Asking for permission 6. Asking for some thing or action 7. Starting a conversation 8. Joining in 9. Giving instructions
2. Maintain Interaction	Behavior that allows the interaction, activity and/or event to continue.	1. Answering 2. Helping others 3. Organizing play 4. Inviting others 5. Playing informally 6. Conversing 7. Listening 8. Convincing others 9. Responding to persuasion
3. Follow Rules/Regulations	Adhere to minimal "rules" of an activity or context, follow routines of given situation; generally implies serial order and/or branching to alternative series to select appropriate response.	1. Listening to teacher 2. Following teacher's verbal directions 3. Reading and following written directions 4. Following school, community rules 5. Accepting consequences 6. Following peer directions 7. Following rules when authority is absent 8. Avoiding trouble

Table 1, cont.

4. Reinforce Others/Display Affection	Provide others with feedback which is rewarding to them.	1. Smiling 2. Saying thank you 3. Saying something nice about what someone did 4. Saying something nice about how someone looks 5. Giving a general compliment 6. Receiving a compliment 7. Understanding the feelings of others 8. Consoling others when they have made a mistake or lost 9. Expressing satisfaction 10. Receiving affection
5. Consequate Others/Punish/Extinguish	Provide others with feedback which indicates that their response was inappropriate, unpleasant, etc., and that you want them to stop that behavior.	1. Telling someone that you don't want to do something 2. Telling someone that you are mad without hurting them 3. Telling someone what you don't like (constructive criticism) 4. Ignoring a tease or other verbal remark 5. Ignoring or leaving when someone tries to hurt you (if you can) 6. Exploring the other person's point of view and expressing differences as you see them 7. Suggesting an alternate action the other person could take to make you less angry
6. Attend to Relevant Cues	Behaviors which accompany any social skills, are critical to the particular situation, and are included in any appropriate response.	1. Good grooming 2. Body posturing 3. Eye contact 4. Using right voice 5. Taking turns 6. Touching the right way

Table 1, cont.

7. Provide Information/Describe	Behavior which shares information, feelings, etc., with others.	1. Answering questions 2. Showing something 3. Introducing yourself 4. Expressing an interest in the surroundings 5. Introducing other people 6. Telling about something not shared with listener 7. Expressing feelings
8. Indicate Preference	Behavior which allows person to make a choice/decision from among alternatives available or presented by others.	1. Stating your preference 2. Choosing an alternative 3. Setting a goal 4. Arranging problems by importance 5. Participating in a decision 6. Deciding when given a choice 7. Determining the value before deciding to do something 8. Resisting peer pressure 9. Negotiating 10. Standing up for yourself and others 11. Convincing others
9. Cope with Negative Situations	Behavior to generate and implement alternative strategies to continue an interaction or complete a task or select an alternative interaction when presented with a negative situation or consequence.	1. Dealing with interruptions 2. Finding an alternate activity when permission has been denied 3. Developing acceptable activities when bored 4. Seeking help when something goes wrong 5. Responding to embarrassment 6. Generating alternatives when excluded or left out 7. Dealing with fearful situations or events 8. Interpreting and evaluating contradictory messages
10. Dealing with Anger	Behavior that receives, deflects and resolves angry situations without harming either the receiver or sender.	1. Receiving a complaint 2. Answering a complaint 3. Receiving an accusation 4. Apologizing 5. Defusing a hostile situation 6. Responding to an attack or fight

Table 1, cont.

11. Leave—Take Exit	Behavior to terminate or withdraw from an interaction situation, cease participation in an activity when appropriate, desired, etc.	1. Moving to next activity at the end of a task 2. Leaving at the end of a positive social interaction 3. Leaving when an interaction/task is not complete 4. Leaving when an interaction/task is negative
12. Problem Solving	Behavior that is used to generate, evaluate and implement solutions to impasses or obstructions to goals.	1. Gathering information 2. Generating trial alternatives 3. Evaluating trial alternatives 4. Implementing (test) alternatives 5. Re-evaluating and modifying alternatives 6. Planning long-term goals 7. Accepting abilities and limitations

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The author would like to acknowledge Dr. Luanna Voltz whose work led to the development of these categories.

Table 2

Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form

List the three major problem functions circled on the Social Skills Environmental Inventory.

	Problem 1	**Problem 2**	**Problem 3**
I. What is the presenting problem behavior (form)? (Be specific)			
	a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
	b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
	c. _____	c. _____	c. _____
II. Assumed function: What effect do you think the behavior is producing?			
	a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
	b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
	c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

In what environments does the problem exist? (You may check more than one.)

	Problem 1						**Problem 2**						**Problem 3**					
	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure
A. Home																		
1. House	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Neighborhood or yard	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
B. School																		
1. Classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Recess or break	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Halls, walks, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Gym, assemblies, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Bus	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 2, cont.

	Problem 1						Problem 2						Problem 3					
C. Community	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure	Almost Never	Some of the Time		Most of the Time		Unsure
1. Shops, grocery store, etc.																		
2. Parks, public places, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Car, bus, etc.																		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
III. With Whom?																		
A. Alone	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
B. Mom	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
C. Dad	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
D. Brother or sister	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
E. Peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
F. Teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
G. Other adults (known)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
H. Other adults (unknown)	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6

IV. When (time of day)

V. Special circumstances (specific task, history, external event, etc.):

VI. What behaviors (forms) do you want the child to use to produce the same effect? (select a minimum of 3) alternatives):

a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

VII. What comparison skills are needed?

a. _____	a. _____	a. _____
b. _____	b. _____	b. _____
c. _____	c. _____	c. _____

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Social Skills Analysis Form

The Social Skills Environmental Analysis Form (*Table 2*) includes several components. Each component is necessary to enable you to correctly select the instructional targets that will enhance a child's social functioning in environments that really matter. The components are discussed below. Although they are separated here for clarity, in actual practice they are treated as a whole.

Presenting problem (form). Most all behavior problems are described to others as a form. A parent will tell you that his child steals, another teacher will say that the child is out of his or her seat, or you will notice that Johnny always hits other kids. This is the beginning point for any assessment. Often a child will use more than one form to reach the same goal. Many of these forms will be acceptable, most will not. List as many of these behaviors as you can. Try to place them in some sort of hierarchial order. This will aid you in planning. For example, a child may escape an assignment by looking out the window, bringing up another subject, talking to another child, arguing with you as to the merits of the work, taunting another child, whining, saying that they are tired, sick or bored, picking a fight with you, throwing a temper tantrum, etc. (The list could go on and on. I am always amazed with the creativity of the little dears.) Often, the child will begin at a relatively low level, and only resort to the major disruptions if the little ones don't work. It is very helpful if you can both describe the problem behaviors that the child uses and place them in levels or categories. As much as possible, problems should be described in behavioral terms. A clear description of what a child does is more useful for programming than a judgment about what he or she does. For example, "Johnny failed to complete three of the last four homework assignments," is much preferrable to "Johnny is lazy."

Assumed function. With the second component of the functional assessment, assumed function, you try to determine what effect the child is producing with the problem behavior. Since this is a guess, you are encouraged to guess more than one purpose, and then put them in the order of most likely first. This is the most important part of the analysis. Without a guess of what effect the child desires, you will be hampered in choosing a replacement behavior. For a child to learn a routine in context and then use that routine to replace problem behaviors, the child must be able to produce the same or a very similar result with the new behavior. It is essential that you take the time to try and determine which effect or set of effects the child is producing with the problem behavior. Many times you will guess more than one function. It is not too important whether or not your initial guess is correct. Your data will tell you if you were right. It is only important that you do guess. Without some notion of the effect the child is trying to produce, there will be much less likelihood of teaching him or her a social skill that can be used in appropriate places. One word of caution: Often, the effect the child is producing is not one that we desire in the situation where it is occurring. For example, children may be getting our attention when they should be doing math, or they may be baiting us into a conflict to escape a dreaded part of the day, when we think they should learn to handle their fears. Ultimately, we want each child to learn when to do math and how to handle fear, but for the present, we need to determine which effect the *child* hopes to produce by using the problem behavior, and then teach another more acceptable behavior to produce the *same* result. Only after children have learned to gain attention (or escape a dreaded situation) by using a socially acceptable form will they learn to deal with that need until their math is done. To many of us, an unacceptable social behavior is an interruption that should be stopped. We systematicaly engineer the environment to prevent it from occurring. Then, when faced with a similar situation where he or she needs attention or is afraid, the child is no more able to deal with it than the first time. When they revert back to their problem behavior, we call it a relapse and tighten our controls. It is hard for all of us to trust that problem behaviors will reduce when other, more acceptable forms are shown effective. We are frequently too impatient and too afraid of possible disruptions. When trying to determine which function is being sought, be sure to guard against the temptation to describe the functions you as the teacher want to produce. You always need to describe the functionality of a behavior from the perspective of the child.

Context. The third element of the assessment process is context. Behaviors occur in context. It is essential that you consider the context of problem behaviors before designing an intervention. If Johnny fails to do his homework when Dad is not home, that may be different from not doing homework when Dad

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Most good behavior is ignored. It does little good to teach a child how to gain attention correctly if no one in the child's environment will attend to it readily.

Problem behavior is very successful. It is almost always reinforced. To replace this behavior, we have to teach the child a set of other behaviors to accomplish the same ends.

is home. Complaining about school or whining when given a math worksheet may be different from complaining about school when a best friend has just moved. Far too often, we focus only on the presenting problem (form) and assume that each occurrence is the same. We assume that all hitting is the same. It may not be.

When analyzing context, you should note where, with whom, and under what circumstances the behavior occurs. You should also note differences between these variables. Often the clue to what to teach can be found where the behavior does not occur. We are all familiar with the teacher's lounge discussions about a particular child. Ronald Rigid is having no end of trouble with Johnny. Marge Mild, however, thinks Johnny is the star pupil. What's the difference? Ronald could find many clues on how to change his approach to Johnny just by watching Marge. Differences in subject matter, difficulty level, time of day, peers, previous performances and upcoming events can also signal what changes should be made. Obviously, careful analysis of the behavioral context is essential.

Often a child's behavior will generalize to all environments. Sometimes however, it will be limited to a particular place. This is important to know. Also, it is important to notice how many different environments a child is using. If a child only plays at school with the teacher and is home alone for the rest of the day, then one of the main objectives must be to increase the number of environments the child accesses.

As much as possible, try to identify environments specifically. "While doing a group art project at the rear of the classroom" is much more useful than "in the classroom." All this information can be found in the inventory.

Replacement forms. These are the set of forms you will teach to replace the problem behavior, yet still achieve the same results for the child. Replacement forms must have two characteristics. First and foremost, they must be effective for the child as they are taught. Second, they must be acceptable to significant others in the child's environment. When assessing the child's environment, it is necessary to determine what types of forms would be effective, and in how many environments these forms could be used. Without this information, we could teach a child a form that would work well in school, but never transfer to other situations.

It is important that you choose more than one replacement behavior. Most good behavior is ignored. It is usually necessary for us to use more than one form to produce a desired result. We should not be teaching children one specific form to use. This produces children who have only one new way to act. If this way fails, then they will resort to the old problem behaviors. If they have several new ways to try, they are more likely not to get into trouble. Also, try to choose behaviors the child can easily do that will be readily reinforced in the natural environment. It does little good to teach a child how to do something to gain attention if no one in the child's environment will attend to it readily.

Companion skills required. Most social skills accompany other activities. It is essential that a child be proficient in the companion skills as well as the social ones. Many times children will be rejected because they are poor at games or don't know some fact or idea. You must assess the child's ability to do the things that peers do in various settings the child accesses. If the favorite game after school is football, then it is important that the child you are working with be both socially appropriate and know how to play the game. The companion skills you target must be the ones likely to be required in the child's environment. It will do little good to teach a child to play checkers or chess if all his or her potential friends are playing Pac-Man. Attending to companion skills gives you two parallel teaching targets for each lesson. First, you must program for the particular social skill the child will need, and then you must begin to teach the child any companion skills required. Fortunately, many companion skills can be used to teach the same social skill, so the amount of social skill instruction will far outweigh the teaching of companion skills.

The assessment system produces three products: the functional areas most important for the child to learn, the forms selected to be taught, and the teaching context. Now you are ready to begin instruction.

The Instructional Process

The teaching social routines curriculum process is based on three assumptions. First, instruction should be in natural routines that lead to a desired critical effect for the child at the time of instruction. Second, instruction should take place in natural contexts whenever possible. Finally, a sufficient amount of assistance needs to be given to a child to ensure a high probability of success throughout instruction. To implement such a curriculum you need to decide which function you are going to train, select an appropriate setting for the instruction, develop a specific instructional plan, and then marshal the resources necessary to carry out the instruction.

Determining the Function

The social skills environmental inventory will provide you with the three problem social functions for each child. Since each class will have more than one child, and possibly more than one program for each child, you will not be able to instruct every function for every child at the same time. You must decide which function to teach first. This decision should always be made in consultation with the parents. Select functions that can be used in multiple environments over those which can be used in only one environment. Longitudinal skills are superior to short-term ones. It is also a good idea to focus on crisis functions first so you can maintain the child in the educational setting. No hard and fast rule can be given as to what to teach first, but considering these points will aid you in your decision.

Selecting the Setting

After you have selected the function you want to train, you need to select an instructional setting in which the child is likely to be able to produce the desired effect. For example, to teach a child to display affection, select settings where these displays are considered appropriate and are likely to be returned. More than one setting would be appropriate; the one you choose will depend on several things.

First, determine who is to do the instructing. Far too often, it is assumed that only the teacher or the teaching assistant can teach social skills. Nothing could be further from the truth. As Strain (1982) points out, social skills are best learned from peers and others naturally in the environment. Lovitt, Lovitt, Easton and Kirkwood (1973) have shown that even difficult situations can be effectively handled by a fellow student. It is important that you step back from the situation and decide who best can provide the necessary instruction, and recruit that person. The teacher's role becomes one of case management rather than instruction in many cases. See McDonald and McDonald (1973) for examples of how to arrange instruction in various settings using personnel other than the teacher.

Another element of the setting that needs to be analyzed is natural cues and consequences. It is important to determine which cues in the setting are likely to call for the desired behavior. For example, if you want to teach a child to deliver positive feedback appropriately, you must help the child determine when and where to do so. A good time to compliment a child is after he or she does something well. It is not a good idea to deliver a compliment following an error, or when two people are talking about something else. Analyzing the setting to determine the critical cues helps you design an instructional program. These natural cues need to be taught as part of the instructional package.

A final area to consider when selecting the setting is the level of support each setting provides. In each setting, there are many situations in which you can engineer the level of social competence required. Each of these situations has specific requirements that can be controlled so that a child has a high probability of success. For example, you can send a child to an office to get a paper cutter or you can send the child out in the school yard to find something to do. Each of these settings has different required skills and different physical supports. The office has a confined space with definite prompts for where to go and what to do. The school yard, on the other hand, is wide open, presents a variety of choices, and has limited numbers of

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Success in the natural world gives the child more control over his or her environment, and reduces the likelihood that problem behavior will recur.

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prompts as to where to go. For some children, the office will be safer and easier to approach. For others, the school yard is the preferred setting because they will be able to wander without being called on to interact. When designing an instructional program for socially deficient children, you should rely on supports available from the various settings you can access. Settings also vary according to who is in them, what tasks are required, and what levels of supervision and assistance are present. Each of these becomes part of the specific instructional plan.

Developing a Specific Instructional Plan

The instructional plan has several parts. Once the specific function has been determined and the likely setting or settings have been chosen, you will need to determine the set of behaviors (forms) that you want to teach, the particular curricula you want to use, the levels of support you want to start with, the companion skills needed, the criteria of success you are going to use, and the type of data you are going to use to evaluate your instruction.

Set of acceptable behaviors (forms). Problem behavior is very successful. It is almost always reinforced. If we hope to replace this highly generalized behavior we will have to teach the child a set of other behaviors to accomplish the same ends. At this step in the planning process, you will need to identify *specifically* the three or four behaviors you want a child to use to replace the troubled behavior. Saying that you want a child to stop stealing or lying is not good enough. You must be able to say what you want the child to do. Many parents and teachers find this a very difficult task. They can easily identify what they want stopped, but have a much harder time deciding three or four things they want the child to do instead. How can we expect a child, in a situation where he or she has been previously reinforced for unacceptable behavior, to generate several alternatives when we, who are not in that situation, cannot?

There are several reasons a set of behaviors is required instead of one specific skill or script. Good behavior is often ignored. If you teach a child only one behavior to use, it is very likely that behavior will not generate enough reinforcement to compete with the less acceptable behavior. Also, one behavior may not work, and then the child will only have the problem behavior to fall back on. There is a special danger in teaching a specific script like those found in some social skills packages (Hazel, 1982, Goldstein, 1980). These scripts rely on another socially competent and generally reasonable person. Many of the disordered interactions children face are with people who are not competent or reasonable. If the script breaks down, the children are frequently left with no other responses except the problem ones. For all these reasons, a set of responses taught in real life situations is preferrable.

Selecting a curriculum to use. Once a particular set of forms has been selected, you need to develop content for instruction. The easiest place to start is with existing social skills curricula. Several are currently available. *Appendix B* gives a partial list. More detailed descriptions of some are in this monograph. Each of these curricula needs to be adapted to the particular setting you have selected, and you have to add the natural starting cues and ensure that naturally occurring critical effects are produced. Initially, most social skills programs suggest you teach the skill in separate, isolated sessions. You need to adapt these programs so they can be taught in natural environments.

If no curriculum exists for the particular set of forms you want to teach, then you have to design a routine. Routines are task analyses that begin with the natural cue and end when the critical effect is realized. Each step from cue to effect is delineated, and then taught as a whole. Routines combine all the skills required to reach an effect into one instructional technique. It is not uncommon to have several developmental skill areas taught in the same routine. Since designing your own routines will be more time consuming than adapting other existing sequences, it is advisable to try to adapt other programs when possible.

Levels of support. When programming for a social skill, it is important to provide the child with enough information and support to respond correctly a majority of the time. Several areas should be considered before finalizing the instructional plan. Each area has many different levels. Determine which area and level you think is most important for you to control during instruction. For example, if a child is afraid of people, design instructional situations with slowly increasing numbers and personalities of people. On the other hand, if a child does pretty well relating to others, but has difficulty figuring out what to do when, you might want to control the specificity/vagueness level of the situation and disregard the number and types of people. Determine what levels of assistance are required for a child to be successful in each area, and then design a program that integrates these levels of assistance. The areas have been divided into separate parts for clarity, but are considered as a whole in actual practice.

Selected people. When a child tries out a new set of behaviors, you will want to consider with whom they try them. Known people are often better first trials than unknown people. Cooperative people are more likely to respond than obnoxious or disinterested ones. An individual might be easier than a small group. People in identified roles (clerks, teachers, librarians, bus drivers, etc.) are easier than strangers on the street or kids in a group "hanging out." You will often want to group these variables and develop a hierarchy for future instruction. For example, you might decide that Johnny should practice asking for something from someone (Initiates, #6) by going up to the librarian (known, cooperative, in set role, individual). When this is learned successfully, you might send the child to an unknown person, or a person who is less cooperative, or to a group of people, etc. Each experience should be more difficult than the preceding one. The gradations you select depend on the type of problem the child is having. For a student who is fearful of others, a set of guidelines might look like this:

Level 1 Cooperative, individual, known
Level 2 Cooperative, individual, unknown
Level 3 Neutral, individual, known
Level 4 Neutral, individual, unknown
Level 5 Cooperative, group of two, known
Etc.

Selected task. The difficulty of the task can also be varied. You might change the task from easy to hard or from specific to vague, or even from comfortable to squeamish. Again, the particular levels of assistance you choose depend on the function desired and the particular child in question. Consider also changing more than one area at the same time. For example, vary the type and number of people as well as the specificity of the task. An early level might be "Ask the librarian for a paper clip." A more advanced step might be "If you want to play with the other kids, you will have to go over there and ask them."

Selected companion. All of us need help with things. Companions can provide that help. A third way to alter the level of difficulty in a particular situation is to provide various levels of companionship. Companions can be teachers, parents, siblings, peers, other adults, etc. Levels of support can range from the companion doing everything and the child going along for the ride, to the companion just "being there," to the companion not even going at all. Providing assistance through the use of natural companions is a valuable instructional tool.

These areas of assistance can be combined in a three-way matrix to help you decide what levels and types of help to provide before you expect a child to perform. By looking at each area, you can design an instructional situation that has a high probability of success. Success in the natural world gives the child more control over his or her environment, and reduces the likelihood that the problem behavior will recur.

Companion skills. Another component of the instructional program is selecting the appropriate companion skills. Many different activities can be used to teach a social function. Try to select activities the child can do reasonably well. You don't want the child to have to be learning two skills at the same time (e.g. kickball and coping with anger). Choosing more than one activity will help the social skill generalize. As the child gets more proficient with the new social behavior, you can shift to more difficult companion skills. This will teach the child to use the new skills when faced with a difficult task or activity.

Companion activities should be ones that frequently occur in the child's natural environment. Sample the environment to determine which games or activities to use. Peers, siblings and parents are also good sources for activities. If the child you are working with does not frequent many places, then you will have to teach him or her a series of activities required in new environments while systematically introducing him or her to those environments. A companion can be a real help in this area. Having a friend go along to show you the ropes greatly enhances the chance for success.

Criteria for success. Criteria for success seems obvious on the surface. You want the child to do what is expected, and so success becomes just that. In reality, however, criteria for success must begin where the child is currently functioning, and then move slowly toward a final desired level. For example, if you determine that a child has little or no entry skills, you will not want to set your initial criteria for success at "is able to enter a group of peers at a party and act appropriately." This is too high a level to be instructionally useful. Set a level just above where the child is currently functioning. In the example on entering, the first level of success might be that the child "will go near another person," or "will approach another person and acknowledge a comment or greeting." In other words, set educational targets just above the child's current level that you can reward. This may seem like a trivial instruction, one that you would do naturally in academic areas. Unfortunately, when the behavior being taught replaces a problem behavior, most of us expect the child to perform correctly and will reward nothing less than that. We often fail to see that social

Social skills need to be learned in small steps, just like math, reading or science.

skills need to be learned in small steps just like math, reading or science.

Data selection and collection. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to outline specific data collection techniques. White and Haring (1980), Kerr and Nelson (1983), and McDowell, Adamson and Wood (1983) offer examples of various data collection systems. Two points about collecting social data need to be emphasized. First, the data you collect should reflect change in settings that really matter. If you want to teach a child to get along at a football game, measure change at a football game. If you want a child to handle stress more effectively, measure how well he or she does during stressful situations. Any data collected in simulation situations or situations where the presenting problems do not occur is speculation at best. This data does little to predict the effectiveness of your teaching outside the classroom.

Second, data must be collected directly and frequently. If you want to know how well a child maintains a conversation, you need to measure that. Standardized or projective tests that attempt to validate social change are inadequate. You need a direct measure of the particular skill you are teaching to know whether or not you have selected the right routine, given adequate support and arranged the events correctly. If there is no change during instruction, you must alter your instruction. Without data, you will not know when and where these alterations should be made.

The more frequent the data, the better. Ideally, you should measure change every time there is an opportunity to instruct. In many social situations, this is impossible. Try to measure change as often as you can. If you are collecting data only once a month, you run the risk of providing incorrect instruction for 30 days without knowing it. This is very inefficient and wastes valuable time. Most handicapped children are already far behind. They cannot afford to waste any more time.

Instructional Steps

Once the set of forms, teaching context, levels and types of assistance have been chosen, instruction begins. This may seem like an inordinately tedious planning phase. However, if you do not anticipate the types of problems you might incur, you will almost certainly reinforce an inappropriate behavior. Instruction consists of setting up various opportunities to try out newly developed sets of behavior in semi-controlled settings. As each behavior is successfully learned, you gradually fade the levels of support until the child has demonstrated the skill in a wide variety of situations. Since the cues and rewards are contained in each situation, there is no need to teach generalization as a separate step or provide artificial reinforcers. Each situation is hopefully balanced so the cost of responding for the child is slightly less than the expected reward.

A subtle shift in instructional responsibility occurs when you use the routine format to teach social skills in the natural environment. Most behavior problems occur on an unscheduled basis. The teacher is always "on," waiting for the next occurrence. In actual fact the child becomes the teacher, and the teacher becomes the responder. Why? Most behavior programs don't start until the problem behavior occurs. The teacher then responds (or does not respond), the child stops the problem behavior, and thereby rewards the teacher, shaping the teacher's response. In other words, the child sets up the lesson (presents the stimuli and rewards), and the teacher becomes the learner. If the child doesn't stop the problem behavior, then the teacher learns not to use that response, and tries another one.

When teaching in the routine format, the teacher has some control over which type and level of problem difficulty is being produced. The child's ability to perform a particular function has been assessed. A specific set of behaviors have been chosen that will most likely produce a desired result, and the situation where these behaviors are to be tried has been arranged by the teacher. In this way, the teacher can plan when some of the social difficulties occur. This is far superior to waiting until a particular problem occurs naturally. Of course, not all situations can be controlled, and there will be times when the problem behavior will occur. In these cases, you have to rely on any techniques appropriate to deal with the situation. This will, however, be less often than before. Also, you will have a plan for acting that includes some notions of which particular function is operating, what level of difficulty was required and what types of support were present. This enables you to more correctly analyze the problem situation so you can plan a more effective intervention next time. Each time the child errs, the problem behavior is reinforced. You know that the behavior will recur. Thus, you have another chance to plan another strategy. This way, it is possible to gradually increase the difficulty of the situation as the child develops more facility.

Further refinements of present techniques will not solve the problems that face us. We need to develop effective techniques to produce lasting change in a child's problem behavior.

Cautionary Comments

It must be reiterated that this system is experimental. Many of the particular ideas and techniques presented here have roots in empirical studies in many fields. The system's closest analogue is the IMPACT Curriculum (Neel, et al, 1983) that was developed for severely involved children. Other curricula using direct social skills instruction also closely parallel this system. They differ primarily in the areas of instructional context and the number of forms they use. This system is more complex than any others that now exist. As more and more data are collected, there will undoubtedly be many changes. The program is presented here for two reasons. First, so that you, my colleagues, can review it and provide the essential feedback so necessary in program development. Without your help it just remains an idea. My second reason for presenting this system is that I believe further refinements of present techniques will not solve the real problems that face us. We need to develop effective techniques that can produce lasting change in situations that really matter — places where children behave in ways that get them labeled, excluded and sometimes even locked away. Recognizing that the system has some shortcomings should not prevent you from using it. Your modifications and corrections can become the basis for an even better system. Use it with that in mind, and send me the changes you make. Together we may begin to develop a functional approach to teaching behaviorally disordered children.

Appendix A

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Social Skills Environmental Inventory

I. Function: Initiates/Gains Entry - Behavior which allows a person to gain access to interaction: either to initiate an interaction, to begin an event/exchange, or to enter one which is already underway.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student identifies a likely partner and approaches him/her at an appropriate time.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student greets another student in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student willingly offers help when another student(s) indicates he/she is in need of assistance.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student asks for help when appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student asks for permission before acting.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student requests something /asks to do something politely.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student initiates conversation with another student(s) in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student joins in ongoing activities without unduly disrupting the activity.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student gives instructions to another student in a friendly, helpful way.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Initiate/Enter	Initiates Contact	Initiates Interaction	Enters Event/ Interaction Underway	Organizes and Initiates Event or Exchange
____	____	____	____	____

II. Function: Maintain Interaction - Behavior which allows the interaction, activity and/or event to continue.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When spoken to, the student responds/answers politely.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student takes initiative to assist others when they need help.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student follows the rules when playing games with others.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student invites other students to participate in an activity.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student interacts with others in an acceptable way in unstructured play situations.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student says things which are relevant to the topic being discussed.*	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student pays attention when spoken to by another student.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student convinces others of his/her point of view.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student cheerfully accepts another person's point of view.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Fail to Acknowledge Initiation/Entry	Acknowledge Initiation	Respond to Initiation	Initiates Further Contact/New Content into Ongoing Interaction	Comment on Interaction and its Value to Partner
____	____	____	____	____

III. Function: Follow Rules/Regulations - Adhere to minimal "rules" of an activity or context, follow routines of given situation; generally implies serial order and/or branching to alternative sets to select appropriate response.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student pays attention when spoken to by the teacher.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. When the teacher tells the student to do something, the student does it.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student produces work of acceptable quality.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student follows the established classroom rules.*	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student accepts consequences for his/her behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student follows directions given by a peer when appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student follows rules when the person in authority is not present.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student avoids trouble by suggesting an alternate activity or leaving the situation.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Follow Established Rules	Follows Specific Rules in Presence of Authority	Follows Specific Rules Without Supervision	Follows Subtle Unspecified Rules of a Situation	Negotiates and Changes Rules as a Part of a Group
____	____	____	____	____

IV. Function: Reinforce Others/Display Affection - Provide others with feedback which is rewarding to them.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student smiles.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student says, "Thank you."	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student says something nice about what another student did.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student says something nice about how another student looks.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student compliments other students.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student accepts compliments by smiling or saying, "Thank you."	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student shows that he/she understands the feelings of others by words or actions.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student consoles others when they have lost a game or made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student expresses affection for others in the right way and at the proper time.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The student receives affection in the right way and at the proper time.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Unresponsive to Actions of Others	Responds to Actions of Others, Type and Amount of Responses Undifferentiated	Responds to Actions of Others, Response Differentiated and Specific to Person and Situation	Description of Reward/Feeling to to Another Separate from a Specific Action/Event	Description of Regard for Individual Separate from Any Actions or Event
____	____	____	____	____

V. Function: Consequate Others/Punish/Extinguish - Provide others with feedback which indicates that their response was inappropriate, unpleasant, etc., and that you want them to stop that behavior.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When someone asks the student to do something he/she does not want to do, the student says "no" politely.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student expresses anger by telling someone he/she is angry without hurting them.*	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student constructively tells someone what he/she doesn't like about what they did or said.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When someone teases the student, he/she looks away and does not answer or respond.*	1	2	3	4	5
5. When someone tries to hurt/fight with the student, he/she tries to walk away.*	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student considers the other person's point of view and expresses differences directly.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When telling another person that he/she is displeased, the student suggests alternate actions the other person could take.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Little or No Negative Affect	Inconsistent Negative Responses; Purpose is Unclear	Escalates Negative Response to as Less Appropriate Form	Disrupts Chain of Events Early to Minimize Negative Effects	Relays Feelings Regarding a Particular Action Accurately, Directly, and in a Timely Manner
____	____	____	____	____

VI. Function: Attend to Relevant Cues - Behaviors which accompany any social skill, are critical to the particular situation, and are included in any appropriate response.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student is clean and dresses neatly.*	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student stands or sits in a way that indicates a good attitude and promotes continued interaction.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student maintains eye contact while speaking or when spoken to.*	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student speaks in a moderate tone of voice (neither too loud/too soft).*	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student takes turns.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student touches others in the right way and at the right time.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Is Unaware of Effect of Relevant Cues on Others	Series Effect of Relevant Cues or Assign Problem to Others	Attends to Some Relevant Cues, But Still Fails to Modify One or More Critical Skills	Uses Relevant Cues in Addressing Others, But is Unable to Shift Cues Within an Interaction	Shifts Behavior According to Perceived Feedback or Response
____	____	____	____	____

VII. Function: Provide Information/Describe - Behavior which shares information, feelings, etc., with others.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student answers questions when asked.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student shares his/her things with others.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student introduces him/herself to others.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student shows an interest in his/her surroundings through verbal comments or physical exploration.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student confidently introduces a friend to someone else.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student voluntarily tells the listener about something the listener did not share with the student.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student appropriately expresses his/her feelings verbally/physically.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

No Information Shared	Comment on Present Environment	Comment on Past Environment Shared by Both Parties	Comment on Unshared Environment	Comment on Future/ Fantasy Environments
____	____	____	____	____

VIII. Function: Indicate Preference - Behavior which allows a person to make a choice/decision from among alternatives available or presented by others.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. When someone asks the student to do something he/she does not want to do, student says "no" politely.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When the student is asked to choose between two or more positive alternatives, he/she states a preference.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student sets goals.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student arranges problems by importance.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student participates in a decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student will make a decision when given the opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student will determine the value of a task before committing him/herself to that task.	1	2	3	4	5
8. When someone tries to persuade the student to do something he/she does not want to do, the student says "no" politely.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The student will politely negotiate when original request is denied.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The student stands up for him/herself in a friendly manner.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The student supports the views of others in a positive manner.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The student persuades othe s in an appropriate way.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

No Reference Indicated	States Preference About Talk or Event that is in the Present Environment	States Preference About Talk or Event that is Not in the Present Environment	Plans and Thinks New Activities Based on General Considerations of Preferences, Resources Resources and Values	States Preference When Others Are Trying to Persuade Other Ways
____	____	____	____	____

IX. Function: Cope with Negative Situations - Behavior to generate and implement alternative strategies to continue an interaction or complete a task, or select an alternative interaction when presented with a negative situation or consequence.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student deals with interruptions patiently, and resumes working following the interruption.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When permission has been denied, the student finds an alternative activity.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When bored, the student develops activities to occupy him/herself.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student seeks help appropriately when something has gone wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When embarrassed, the student redirects the activity or minimizes the embarrassment in some other way.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student finds other ways to play when he/she asks to join an activity and the answer is "no".*	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student takes appropriate steps to reduce his/her fear.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The student appropriately interprets and evaluates contradictory messages and takes steps to clarify them.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does Not Respond to Negative Feedback or Consequence	Acknowledges Negative Feedback, but Persists Behavior	Responds to Negative Feedback Inappropriately	Negotiates Interaction Based Upon Feedback to Point of Resolution
____	____	____	____

X. Function: Dealing with Anger - Receives, deflects and resolves angry situations without harming either the receiver or sender.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student receives a complaint by listening carefully and clarifying when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student answers a complaint without being defensive.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student receives an accusation by listening carefully and clarifying when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When wrong, the student apologizes willingly.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student takes appropriate steps to defuse a hostile situation if possible.	1	2	3	4	5
6. When someone tries to hurt/fight with the student, he/she tries to walk away.*	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Responds to Negative with Generalized Avoidance or Protest	Responds Only When Negative is Present Attempts to Avoid Negative	Responds to Negative and Ceases Behavior No New Activities are Generated	Generates New Action When Presented with a Negative	Rearranges Actions so that Interaction Negative is Reduced or Eliminated
____	____	____	____	____

XI. Function: Leave-Take/Exit - Behavior to terminate or withdraw from an interaction situation, cease participation in an activity when appropriate, desired, etc.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student moves on to the next activity at the conclusion of a task.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The student ends a positive interaction in a friendly way.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student leaves an uncompleted interaction/task pleasantly.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When an interaction/task is negative and alternate solutions have failed, the student leaves the situation calmly.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does not Terminate Interaction	Terminates Interaction with Inappropriate Form	Terminates Positive Interaction Appropriately	Terminates Negative Interaction Appropriately
____	____	____	____

XII. Function: Problem Solving - Behavior that is used to generate, evaluate and implement solutions to impasses or obstructions to goals.

	Not Descriptive or True		Moderately Descriptive or True		Very Descriptive or True
1. The student gathers information relevant to his/her tasks/goals.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When solving a problem, the student generates more than one alternative.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The student evaluates more than one alternative before taking action.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The student tries an alternative even if he/she is unsure of the result.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The student re-evaluates alternatives after they have been tried and modifies them appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The student plans long-term goals.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The student accepts his/her own abilities and limitations.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall rating: Check one or more that best describes **typical** performance.

Does Not Solve Problem	Solicits Others to Solve Problem	Solves Own Problem in Way that is Viewed as Negative by Others or Terminate Interaction	Solves Immediate Problems in Positve Way. Little or no Connection Between Sets of Problems	Solves Problems in Ways that Increase Probability or Developing Positive Outcomes in the Future
____	____	____	____	____

REVIEW THE PREVIOUS SECTIONS AND CIRCLE THE THREE MOST PROBLEM AREAS.

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*Taken from *Social Skills Curriculum: The ACCEPTS Program* by H.M. Walker, S. McConnell, D. Holmes, B. Todis, U. Walker and N. Golden, 1983. Pro-Ed Corp.: Austin, Texas.

Appendix B

Annotated Bibliography of Social Skills Curricula

(1) Simulation Materials

a. Goldstein, A. P.; Sprafkin, R. P.; Gershaw, N. J.; and Klein, P. *Skillstreaming the adolescent*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1980.
Target population. This program was developed for adolescents, and can be utilized with intermediate level elementary students.
Description of materials. The text provides the educator with 50 lesson plans for 50 social skills, two different homework report forms and instructions for implementing the program.
Format. The teacher selects one of the 50 skills to be taught. Each lesson follows the same format: (1) define and discuss the skill to be learned, (2) distribute skill cards containing the steps for the skill, (3) model appropriate use of the skill, (4) organize role-plays during which students practice the skill, (5) give and invite feedback, (6) provide social reinforcement, and (7) assist students in planning homework assignments.

b. Hazel, J. S., Schumaker, J. B.; Sherman, J. A.; and Sheldon-Wildgen, J. *Asset: A social skills Program for adolescents*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1982.
Target population. Designed for adolescents grades six through 12, this program functions best when used with groups of five to eight members.
Description of materials. The Asset manual provides the leader with training procedures, nine lesson plans, skill sheets outlining the steps for each skill, home notes, checklists, consent forms and various questionnaires. The program includes nine video taped sequences modeling appropriate and inappropriate social interaction skills. The leader is encouraged to utilize appropriate props for role-plays.
Format. Each session follows the same format: (1) review of home notes, (2) review of previously learned skills, (3) presentation and discussion of positive and negative examples of the target skill on video tape, (4) distribution and examination of skill sheets containing the steps in the target skill, (5) verbal rehearsal, (6) role-play or behavioral rehearsal, (7) feedback, (8) criterion role-plays and (9) home notes assigned.

c. *MARC: Model affective resource curriculum*. Orlando, Florida: Orange County Public Schools.
Target population. This program is designed for adolescents.
Description of materials. The manual provides the teacher with lessons for skills in four areas: self-control, interpersonal problem solving, communications and behavioral interactions.
Format. Each lesson teaches a specific skill or component of a skill. The leader (1) facilitates discussion, (2) models appropriate behavior, (3) assists students in practicing the skill through role-plays, (4) provides feedback, (5) summarizes the lesson and (6) gives a practice assignment. Several lessons involve practicing the skills in natural environments, as well as simulation.

d. Stephens, T. M. *Social skills in the classroom*. Columbus, Ohio: Cedars Press, Inc., 1978.
Target population. This program can be used with student groups of all ages.
Description of materials. The manual provides the educator with instruction in a variety of directive teaching techniques: social modeling, social reinforcement and contingency management. The manual also provides three lesson plans (one for each teaching technique) for each of the 136 skills. The teacher selects the skill to be taught and the teaching technique most applicable to the student's needs.
Format. When teaching a new skill, the educator uses the social modeling strategy: (1) set the stage through discussion, a story, a film, etc., indicating the value of learning the skill, (2) draw out of discussion the specific steps which make up the skill, (3) model correct behavior, (4) set up role-plays in which the students practice correct behavior, and (5) plan and implement reinforcement strategies for the skill throughout the day. The teacher may use social reinforcement or contingency management techniques if needed to continue to maintain the skill once learned.

e. Walker, H. M.; McConnell, S., Holmes; D., Todis, B.; Walker, J.; and Golden, N. *The Walker social skills curriculum: The accepts program*. Austin, Texas: Services for Professional Educators, 1983.
Target population. This program is designed for students at the elementary level, grades one through six.
Description of materials. The manual provides the teacher with guidelines for teaching the curriculum, teaching scripts for 28 skills, and behavior management procedures.
Format. The leader facilitates (1) definition and guided discussion, (2) modeling of positive example, (3) modeling of negative example, (4) role-plays for practice, (5) criterion role-plays to determine if concept was learned and (6) informal contracting. All examples for each skill are available on video tape.

(2) Supplementary activities

a. Ball, G. *Interchange*. San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute, 1977.
Target population. Separate kits are available for junior high and senior high students.
Description of materials. Each kit is packaged in a storage box for easy access to leader's manual and cards for discussion sessions. The discussion topic cards are organized into approximately 40 units, each with six to 10 discussion lessons outlined.
Format. The leader facilitates a supportive, open-ended style discussion session which focuses on one of the discussion topics.

b. Elardo, P.; and Cooper, M. *Aware: Activities for social development*. Menlo Park, California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1977.
Target population. This program is designed for elementary aged students.
Description of materials. The handbook provides the teacher with techniques for conducting successful lessons, and sufficient discussion topics, enrichment ideas, games and role-plays to last an entire year.
Format. The leader's objectives are to encourage active participation, lead discussions with enthusiasm, encourage students to expand ideas, ask questions, etc. The teacher utilizes the discussion themes in other parts of the curriculum by using enrichment ideas provided in the handbook during reading, math, social studies, etc.

c. Hoagland, C.; Eyler, S.; and Vacha, E. F. *Classroom learning to attain social skills*. Orcutt, California: Orcutt Union School District, 1981.
Target population. These activities are best suited for primary aged students, grades kindergarten through three.
Description of materials. The handbook provides the educator with an overview description of how to implement supplementary social interaction strategies. Reproducible pages make preparing for activities such as games, graphing and puppetry easy. Detailed descriptions of music, art, movement and group cooperative activities are presented.
Format. The educator uses the handbook lesson plans to provide a wide variety of reinforcing, fun activities designed to encourage positive growth in the general areas of friendship, communication and cooperation.

d. Palomares, U.; and Logan, B. *A curriculum on conflict management*. San Diego, California: Human Development Training Institute, 1975.
Target population. Discussion and activity lessons are designed for elementary aged students, grades one through six. Many could be used with adolescents grades seven through nine as well.
Description of materials. The small handbook provides information about conflict and conflict resolution, discussion topics for conflict management sessions, and descriptions for activities to reinforce learning in the area of conflict management. Activities include creative writing, skits, art, sensory perception, verbal and nonverbal communication, comic strips, puppets and many others.
Format. When presenting topics for discussion, the teacher's objectives are to encourage individual expression, accept every viewpoint, model good listening and keep the discussion open-ended. When presenting experiential activities, the educator concludes the activity with open-ended questions in order to encourage students to express their feelings and share what they have learned.

e. *Project Transition*. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, Department of Student Services, 1981.
Target population. This comprehensive program is designed for use by counselors at the senior high level. Use by classroom teachers is encouraged as well.
Description of materials. The materials are organized into six booklets, each one a separate unit. The six content areas are introduction, communication, self-assessment, goal setting/decision-making, career exploration and long-range planning.
Format. The leader follows the manual for each discussion session or activity lesson. Activities include paper-pencil tasks, group tasks, art, etc. Discussion following the activity is directed by the leader.

f. *Putting it Together*. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, Department of Student Services, 1978.
Target population. These lessons are designed for elementary aged students, but many could be adapted to secondary grade levels.
Description of materials. The handbook provides descriptions for activities grouped into five general areas: transition and orientation to a new school, classroom climate, self awareness, conflict resolution and career awareness. This handbook is actually a compilation of supplementary activities from other authors. Activities include games, creative writing, brainstorming, discussion, questioning, awards, graphing, stories, journal, vocabulary building and many more.
Format. No specific information is given regarding leader behaviors or instructional techniques. The teacher simply uses the lesson plans in any manner that works well in the ongoing curriculum.

g. Vacha, E. F., McDonald, W. A.; Coburn, J. M.; and Black, H. E. *Improving classroom social climate*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977.
Target population. These activity lessons are best suited for students in grades four through six.
Description of materials. The text provides information regarding the implementation of a classroom climate program and how to best utilize the book. Teacher's guides and lesson plans are divided into six general areas: attraction, communication, leadership, norms, expectations and cohesion. Activities includes games, puzzles, art, mazes, cooperative tasks, discussion, stories, worksheets, interviews and more.
Format. The goal of the educator is simply to implement lessons from each of the five topic areas throughout the school year in order to provide students an opportunity to interact with one another on a regular basis, and discover together ways to improve social interaction skills.

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